

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

MIDDLE-GRADE ASPECTS OF THE REPORT ON AMERICAN HISTORY

AN EDITORIAL in the February issue of *Social Education* appraised the contributions made by the recent *Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges*. Chief among these contributions it rates the evidence that American history is taught widely at all school levels and that meaning and significance are stressed rather than isolated facts. It approves the clear-cut explanation of the relationships existing between history and the other social studies, and hopes that the statement may remove a widespread suspicion of the term "social studies." Teachers concerned with all phases of social studies instruction will join wholeheartedly in appreciation of the Committee's services along the lines enumerated.

When the "Recommended Content" (Chapter VI) is carefully examined, however, grave doubts arise. Searching inquiry should be made into the division of materials among the different school levels, and the criteria for making this particular division. The following comments raise questions in regard to the content recommended for the middle grades (grades IV, V, VI).

WHAT IS INCLUDED AND WHAT IS EXCLUDED

THAT the period up to the year 1789 should be included in the history content for the middle grades (granted that American history is to be taught) will probably be questioned very little. It is packed full of action and adventure—two characteristics which have consistently stood at or near the top in every study of children's interests. It offers opportunity to explore a simple agricultural economy, and the industrial processes of the era are not too complex for young children to follow and even to experience; clearly the materials are within their *capacities and at their maturity level*. No one has questioned the *social value*. These three are valid criteria for curriculum content.

But that children should be limited to this

historical period until they reach the seventh grade, at age twelve or beyond, by no means follows. The Committee has made provision for a few topics extending beyond 1789, but states, "Perhaps two thirds of the time is allocated to the period before 1789" (p. 71). The graph on the same page shows even a little more.

For the one-third remaining are suggested such topics as: the westward movement of peoples—successive frontiers, traders, pioneers, frontier leaders; peoples who came to America—new nationalities on the frontiers, America the homeland of a mixed people; and a study of the map of North America in 1819 and 1848.

This time distribution makes it impossible to include many of the favorite themes of middle-grade children: railroads, automobiles, airplanes, canal boats, steamships, how machines work, cowboys, searching for gold, the Spanish-American war, winning our tropical islands.

It gives no opportunity to carry on the story of development to the present day and to make fruitful applications to present-day conditions, though the children are looking at newspapers, listening to the radio, and seeing newsreels constantly. Telling them that they will have such an opportunity later is cold comfort.

If the teacher capitalizes on middle-grade children's intense interest in World War II she does so outside the limits the Committee has set. Children in most areas outside the original thirteen states will spend practically all their middle-grade experience on a time before their own section was even settled; local tie-ups will therefore be difficult. All these matters, highly significant to children, cannot be included in the one-third left unallocated by the Committee.

A similar truncated plan, dividing a nation's history into time-blocks, and studying one block a year, was long followed in Great Britain and in other European countries; it seems to have given little satisfaction there.

Since the Report limited itself to American history, no remarks on the need for a history of civilization need enter into the discussion.

THE THEMES

WHY did the Committee decide that children in grades four, five, and six should spend most of their time on the period of discovery, exploration, and colonization? Its own statement is "the more difficult topics are allocated to the higher school levels" (p. 70). If there is any question on which there is less evidence to base a conclusion than the question "What is an easy topic?" the writer has not found it.

Is life in the modern period (with which children are relatively familiar and within which direct experiences can easily be provided) more difficult to comprehend than the life of three hundred years ago (to form any adequate picture of which requires an elaborate process of dissociation)? Ease probably depends on the phases and aspects chosen, rather than on the time period. It surely depends more on the nature of the experiences that can be provided as a basis for understanding than on the wording of a topic.

No political phases whatever are included in the detailed plan laid out on pp. 74-76 for the middle grades. Probably there should be few, since children have had few experiences in this area; but to exclude them entirely carries disquieting implications for the inculcation of democracy. Presumably, children are to practice democracy in the classroom (though the Report does not say so); but they are not to read about how the democratic ideals developed, or the price that has been paid for them. All that sort of instruction is allocated to the upper levels; but by that time attitudes are fixed and ideals have long been formed. No one who has experimented with middle-grade children can doubt their ability to understand and to practice democratic values (which doubtless would have to be classed as political).

The specific lists of dates and persons obviously depend on the content chosen. If the content is unduly restricted, the lists must be unsatisfactory. Certain internal inconsistencies must be noted, such as a recommendation for the study of the map of North America in 1783 as a major topic, but the omission of 1783 from the list of representative dates.

The geographers will doubtless have much to add in order to make the map studies mentioned on page 75 more fruitful.

The skills listed on page 76 will meet general approval from middle-grades teachers; they will also feel, however, that they cannot escape taking over some of those allocated to the junior high school (pp. 78-79) if they are to do their own

tasks even reasonably well. For example—the ability to interpret pictures, and the ability to make simple outlines.

CONCLUSIONS

AFTER careful study the writer is forced to the conclusion that the recommendations were made without adequate consideration for the interests and capacities of middle-grade children. Pupils in grades four, five, and six should be free to follow content they are capable of understanding and that in which they are interested, even though the course of study so chosen presents a problem for the curriculum-makers in the junior high school. They should not be deliberately repressed in the interests of easy administration.

Middle-grade teachers recognize that the Committee was sincerely seeking to avoid deadening duplication; they recognize unplanned repetition as an evil that should be eradicated as speedily as possible. They admit that the Report shows a way of accomplishing this purpose; but they seriously question whether this is the best way or even a good way. They fear the "solution" will raise as many questions as it solves, and they fear it especially, because it possesses the fatal attraction of being easy to administer.

The Report lists on page 68 several possible methods of avoiding repetition and duplication; it does not give the reasons why the method outlined in Chapter VI was chosen from among them. Many of the Committee's sincerest friends wish that it had laid out several alternative plans and had invited school systems to experiment with each, under supervision. Techniques for making such studies and evaluating the results are well known.

On the basis of such results, more valid recommendations might have been made as to what middle grades might pursue with profit, how the junior high school might advance beyond that stage, etc. Until such a study shall be made, the question of content for different school levels cannot be considered settled.

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SOCIAL STUDIES AND MORALS¹

THE editorial page of *Social Education*, in its recent attention to "Moral Values in American History," raises many far-reaching and basic problems, not the least of which is

¹This statement continues the discussion of "Moral Forces in American History" on this page in the November and January issues. EDITOR.

the place of moral values in the social studies program of America's schools. The following observations are presented in the hope that through discussion such issues may be further clarified.

The generally accepted statement of the objectives of social studies instruction is to make the political, social, and economic world intelligible to the pupil—and I should like to add—to the end that he may behave rationally in relation to it and be a positive force in a democratic society.

We might well ask, "Why do we want to make the political, social, and economic world intelligible?" The answer—because the citizen is called upon to make the ultimate decisions in the political, social, and economic world of which he is a part, decisions which affect for good or ill his own welfare and the happiness of 130 million fellow Americans.

There is a basic assumption which is made either implicitly or explicitly by those who agree that the democratic way of life is the best way of life. That assumption is that man is a thinking, rational animal capable of ordering his own political, social, and economic world through the institutions of government fashioned with his own hands, the product of his own imagination and creative genius.

It follows, therefore, that the decisions of the citizen will be good and right only in so far as they are based upon *facts* and *truth*; because, it is only through the use of facts that the individual has a chance to pre-determine the probable "effects" of a proposed "cause" or course of action.

It will be noted that such words as "welfare," "good," and "right" crept into the above analysis. These words have a decided moral or ethical connotation. *Welfare* must always be human, national, international, group welfare. *Good* is the greatest good for the greatest number. The *right* action or decision is that action, decision, or behavior which brings forth the greatest good for the greatest number, hence, the greatest possible welfare for the largest number of people.

Thus, the citizen of a democracy, if he discharges his civic duties, must continually pass judgment upon the policies of his government and the actions of his civil servants. And judgment is a moral act. Making up one's mind about inflation, deciding where one stands on labor unionism and the national debt, evaluating a tax bill, writing to your congressman—all these are moral acts. It is judgment. It is ethics, civic ethics, in action.

WE SAY that we, the social studies teachers, are educating for citizenship for civic competence. We know what we want. We want the students who pass through our hands to go out and be *good* citizens, moral citizens, if you will. But how are we going to get what we want?

A suggestion of how to get undesired results: moralizing. They already know all the *right* answers. They know they should vote. They know they should obey the laws, that Lincoln and Washington were great men, and that the Constitution is a great document. Or, they know enough to pass most of the examinations which we give. But these things do not of themselves develop civic competence, do not make it possible for them to deal in terms of national welfare or international justice, things with which they must deal if they discharge their duties of citizenship properly.

First, I would propose that information from the traditional subject-matter areas of the social studies be presented in a manner such that the historical, geographic, governmental, sociological, and economic facts have a *direct* relationship to a problem which the pupil knows and wants to solve.

Second, that the pupil be made to realize that his opinion is worth only as much as the facts upon which it is based. The "Oh! I just think so" response is the enigma of citizenship. The retort that Jefferson or Lincoln or Washington or the book said so—i.e. the acceptance of authority because it is authority—if left unchallenged will place the withering hand of death upon minds that can be made, motivated, to think. Students find it much easier to accept what the teacher says. In initial stages they do not like to think. It's hard. They have to get facts and *use* them. It is easier, much easier, to stop with facts. But they can think, and they do a much better job at it than one would normally expect.

Third, the pupil should understand that after he has assembled his facts they are still to be used, that he is expected to do something with them, to wit, make up his mind as to where he stands. Is inflation or democracy good? What is it good for? Who is it good for? Why is it good?

Fourth, in gathering facts and using them as the foundation upon which to base an opinion, the student should be made to realize that all judgment, or appraisal if you wish, is an "under these circumstances," an "in this instance" judgment. Justice and right and good are but the creatures of unique situations.

Fifth, if all situations are unique, in addition

they are, more often than not, complicated. It is essential, therefore, that students realize that they probably will never know all the facts. If, when, and as new facts, understandings, and relationships are discovered it may be necessary to revise a judgment, viewpoint, or belief. A suspended, conditional, revisable judgment is the only judgment which democracy can safely endorse. Moreover, this is the essence of democracy, the avenue to peaceful change in a world "which never is or was but is continually in the process of becoming."

Sixth, the social studies should offer much practice in the organization of facts and opinion in a useful and intelligible manner, as an aid to clear thinking, logical reasoning, and self-expression. If organization is muddled and incoherent then reasoning is apt to be befuddled and inadequate.

Seventh, the social studies program will have failed if the student has not become acquainted with the most reliable sources of information, the best places to go to get the "How's," "When's," "Where's," and "Why's" which may be useful in solving any particular problem. Moreover, in the course of his education he should develop a framework whereby these sources may be subjected to critical analysis. It is essential that degrees of reliability be a tool in the hands of all to the end that the printed and spoken word may become the servant and not the master of the minds which will control the destiny of democracy.

If, then, we as social studies teachers truly wish to educate for citizenship the thing to do is just that. The time is *now*. The place is *here*, in our classrooms. The way is to show pupils how, not what, to think about problems which are of direct concern to them as citizens of the American democracy. If we show them the way to evolve an informed opinion, to judge with discrimination, to express open judgments openly arrived at—if we do these, then we will have done our job and done it well. In doing so we will have dealt with, we will have taught the highest type of civic morality. In short, we will have taught democracy.

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THE TIMES CAMPAIGN CONTINUES

THE *New York Times*, which has repeatedly referred to the Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Col-

leges as "an outgrowth of the *New York Times* history survey," continues its campaign for more laws in spite of the explicit objections of the Report to such legislation. In an editorial published on February 20, in support of a bill recently introduced in the legislature of the State of New York, the *Times* even manages to imply that the Report favors such measures.

Disregarding the sharp criticism of the preposterous "test" sponsored by the *Times*, the editorial declares:

The *Times* survey of last April pointed out the weakness in this field among college students, while the Wesley report issued last month revealed the lack of knowledge among high school pupils. Yet, as the study made by Dr. Wesley and his committee aptly observed, "the study of history can help to develop loyal, intelligent and well-rounded citizens. . . ."

It may be observed, first, that the *Times* misrepresents the findings of the Report (Chapter I) so far as the knowledge of high school students is concerned; and second, that no one has questioned the value of American history or the need for teaching it.

The *Times*, intent on its campaign, coolly ignores other items in the Report. American history, according to the table on page 33 of the Report, is offered in the State of New York in the fifth, sixth, eighth, eleventh, and twelfth grades—in five years of the upper elementary and secondary grades. So far as the secondary years alone are concerned, Howard E. Wilson, in *Education for Citizenship*, one of the volumes of the report of the Regents Inquiry, published in 1938, found that "in the six years of the secondary school the typical pupil spends almost three years in the study of American history" (p. 129).

The *Times* citation of the new Report to bolster the newspaper's arguments is especially extraordinary in view of the fact that one chapter (Chapter IX) in the Report is devoted to criticism of and opposition to legislative requirements, which the findings of Chapter III have already demonstrated to be unnecessary. "State legislatures," declares the last paragraph of the Report, "should not write the social studies curriculum; it should be made by social studies teachers, educational experts, and professors of the social sciences." The *Times* scarcely strengthens its case by misrepresenting the Report from which it quotes, or by ignoring evidence that, as the Report makes clear, the amount of American history taught, in New York and elsewhere, is already adequate.

E. M. H.

Regionalism in World Order

Robert S. Platt

WORLD order is a matter of universal desire and of violent disagreement. Are peace and order to be approached through world federation, imperial domination, hemispheric solidarity, or state sovereignty?—through globalism, regionalism, nationalism, totalitarianism, or democracy?

Geographers generally are committed to the study of regions. The question has arisen as to whether this fact carries with it any commitment regarding regional policies in world affairs. Are geographers committed to regionalism as against world unification?

The question in its simple form is easily answered, in the negative. But underlying implications of the question deserve analysis. What geographic aspects of the world underlie regionalism and globalism?

THE WORLD AS A NATURAL UNIT

REGIONALISM implies division of the world into areas that are separate from each other or different from each other in some way or other. If there were no differences from place to place and no significant separations on the earth, then there would be no basis for regions; and there would be no geography (assuming that, first of all, geography treats of areas with respect to their differences). Evidently there are great differences and separations on the earth, and so there is geography and there are regions.

But there are no absolute, totally distinct regions, and no absolute boundaries between regions. There are only relative regions, defined according to selected criteria, for convenience in

elementary generalization or for special purposes of political or nonpolitical organization. Between regions there are only relative boundaries of limited utility for special purposes.

Regions merge into each other, overlap each other, and change when the selection of criteria is changed. They cannot do otherwise, for they are constructed by the generalizing human mind from an intricate maze of intersecting, overlapping, underlying phenomena covering the earth, a maze from which regional criteria are selected for one purpose or another.

So the unity of the world is more complete and compelling than any regional division made for limited and relative utility. The most conspicuous boundaries between regions, the oceans, have served as the most extensive highway system joining opposite shores and providing world-wide intercourse. Regions defined by continental land masses are no more united by nature than those defined around the borders of seas and oceans, such as the Mediterranean region and the Pacific region, for example. The air now forms a world highway more complete than the sea, over every sea and land and across every possible regional boundary.

World unity is a basic concept permanently established in nature. No regional division can be anything more than a constituent part of a larger whole. A regional division which lacks constructive and positive relations to the larger whole has only an insecure and temporary place in the world. Fortunately there is not only a modern unity in world-wide transportation but also an old unity in human nature among all groups of people, consistent with the common origin of the human race and more fundamental than the racial differences which have developed.

So much for the basic idea of world unity as overshadowing regional division. Beyond that the fact remains that there is great diversity of land and people over the earth, and that regional division is not only convenient but essential for effective organization of human life.

Since there is no hope of finding absolute and perfect regions to serve all purposes, the best

The first version of this paper was presented at the Third Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges held at the University of Chicago last July. The final form, here published, was presented at the September meeting of the Association of American Geographers. The author is professor of geography at the University of Chicago.

alternative seems to be the recognition and use of all regional combinations for what they are worth, acknowledging existing regional divisions and organizing new ones in areas where common problems call for comprehensive solutions.

Overlapping of regions is inevitable, a fact which is not to be deplored but is to be accepted like other conditions of life on earth. Overlapping may even assist in the overall coordination of human affairs.

REGIONS: (1) INTERNATIONAL, (2) NATIONAL

IN THE study of international relations the policy of regionalism is used chiefly to refer to regional areas larger than nations, generally to groups of nations (using the word "nation" in the sense of a territorial political unit). Such regional areas are Pan America, Anglo America, Caribbean America, the Pacific area, the North Atlantic area, Western Europe, the Mediterranean, and the Far East.

Some of these overlap others. But this should be no obstacle to their advantageous use, so long as it is remembered that all are parts of a larger whole. Organization of regional areas as isolated and competitive units of power mobilized against each other is an ultimately intolerable form of world order (the Western Hemisphere against the Eastern, for example). But regional organization for solution of common problems within such areas may be useful and ultimately essential (within the Americas, for example).

By common definition regions are not necessarily so large as groups of nations. The national states themselves may be considered as regional divisions and may well be discussed from that viewpoint.

The territory of a nation is distinct and separate in some ways and is organized as a unit. But it is no more absolute and ultimate than any other regional division of the world. Nations are historical accidents. The map of a country is dated, and no real-estate deed guarantees territorial rights to the end of the world.

On the other hand every nation has sufficient justification for its status. The mere fact of existence is enough justification. Nations in general may well continue to exist in the future, no matter how perfect world organization may become. National units are based on a certain grouping of land and people and have developed some unity of organization. Therefore like other regional divisions they should continue to be convenient units performing their functions within the world frame.

REGIONS: (3) INTRANATIONAL, (4) LOCAL

REGIONALISM in a broad sense extends to still smaller divisions. Many geographic regions are within nations—the Cotton Belt, the Corn Belt, the Humid Pampas—each homogeneous in certain respects and defined by reference to certain criteria. Each is an area in which the inhabitants confront common problems different from the problems of other regions.

Blanket administration for a whole country cannot solve the regional problems of different parts. Some federal agencies have discovered that too much centralization is bad, and that adequate regional decentralization is required to serve the purposes of government and the public welfare.

In speaking of regionalism, we have not yet reached the end of the series. There is a still smaller subdivision to be included: the local community. Within the Cotton Belt and the Humid Pampas there are villages, groups of farms, and urban districts, in each of which people know each other, know their way around in a familiar landscape, live their daily lives, and manage their neighborhood affairs.

Perhaps these divisions are more important than the others; perhaps even more important than the world as a whole. What after all is the purpose of regional organization and of world order, except to provide a good place for the people of the world to live in? And how, in any case, can we change the limitations of human beings and their human lives?

We speak of the world-wide enlargement of our horizon and our global connections, as if now each one of us had expanded and could live all over the world all at once. As a matter of fact, the rank and file of people in the world still live their lives in their local communities. Even those of us who travel and dabble in world affairs have not really changed. We know a few hundred people by name, we feel at home over a few square miles of land, we work at things within reach of our hands. Even presidents and prime ministers are not supermen. In fact they are not noticeably different from local patriarchs in any home town. Statesmen in world affairs act under immediate circumstances no less local and personal than village aldermen and county judges. At the same time village teachers may encompass the world with no greater difficulty than generals and ambassadors.

The local communities of the world are important divisions, now too much neglected, especially in the United States (much less neglected in China and Latin America). In these

days of overemphasis on nationalism, when thinkers are calling for organization beyond the nation, there is reason to look simultaneously within the nation and to call for increased local autonomy and more healthy community life. There is danger of focusing attention on interrelations and losing the human life that is to be interrelated. Attention in both directions is required.

E PLURIBUS UNUM

FROM the viewpoint of regimentation the world is in a hopeless mess of limited human capacity and intricate local variety. But from the viewpoint of human life, the world is full of rich opportunity for all kinds of people. Instead of stamping out local variety in a uniform world culture, we may well try to preserve local cultures and foster world-wide opportunity for abundant and prolific variety. The new technology of transport may be used either as a menace to culture or as a means of fertilization and enrichment.

We cannot choose between having a world state, or hemisphere solidarity, or a United States, or a home state, or a home town. We have to accept all these areal relations and do our best to fit them together, if we are to satisfy basic conditions of human life, including at one extreme the natural unity of the world and of people, and at the other extreme the natural variety of localities and limitations of human beings. Unless we stop the either-or argument between isolationism and internationalism and plan for both kinds of relationships we may lose the opportunities that both sides desire.

Totalitarianism obviously has been wrong in fighting for centralized world unity without local autonomy. Sometimes arguments for democracy seem wrong, too, in calling only for the opposite extreme of individual freedom without any suggestion of individual responsibility or discipline in local, national, or world relations—apparently calling for social chaos.

But we know the implications of democracy, of freedom within a larger frame, of government carried on by the people not merely by voting for a national or international president to manage their affairs, but by choosing their village councils and building up their community life as the foundation of national and international life. We know that in emphasizing freedom and local self-determination democracy is focusing attention properly on the inhabitants of the world, who are the only makers of world order and the sole heirs.

A PATTERN FOR THE FUTURE

IN THE preceding generalizations, it may be thought that some predictions are implied. To avoid misunderstanding, a more specific statement about the future should be added. Therefore I predict:

(1) That there will be a well-integrated and sufficiently centralized world organization.

(2) That there will be sufficient decentralization to provide for healthy local autonomy, giving everybody a chance to participate in local affairs, more vital than world affairs.

(3) That between the two extremes, of the local community and the whole world, there will be various regional areas organized to care for common problems, all of them relative and specialized, some of them overlapping.

(4) That the attainment of these goals is subject to the slow momentum of history, in which we may have come more than half way from primitive tribal organization to modern nations. Perhaps we may attain such regional and world order within a thousand years.

The length of time involved need be no cause for personal discouragement. We now have as good an opportunity as people at any time to understand the problems that confront us, and to participate in greater local initiative at home, in regional interests, national and otherwise, and in world co-operation.

In the United States, policies and actions are determined by public opinion. What public opinion demands will be done. If public opinion on any issue is active, sound, and well informed, the resulting action will be wholesome. If public opinion is indifferent, narrow, or uninformed, it may support actions that will, in the long run, produce unfortunate results.

Public opinion in this democracy is as potent in matters of international policy as it is in domestic concerns. Since the United States is great and powerful among nations, public opinion in this country and the actions which flow from it produce reactions all around the globe (*Educational Policies Commission, Education and the People's Peace*, pp. 15f).

Teaching History in an Army Air Force College Training Program

Edwin J. Westermann and William G. Ruppert

IN THE spring of 1943 Eastern Oregon College of Education was designated as a center for the pre pre-flight training of Army Air Force aviation students. When the first Army Air Force College Training Detachment arrived at the campus on March 31, the men were assigned to basic academic courses in mathematics, physics, geography, history, English, medical aid, civil air regulations, and physical education. Customarily, the class size approximates thirty-three men. In addition to class work, each trainee is expected to do an hour of military drill and other military assignments each day, and to complete ten hours of preliminary flight instruction at the neighboring airport.

Upon completion of the required academic and flight instruction, at the end of five months, the aviation students are transferred as aviation cadets to a regular Army Air Base for advanced training in a pre-flight school for pilots, bombardiers, and navigators.

A survey of a representative group, consisting of one hundred men, reveals that 21 percent attended high school but did not graduate, while 79 percent graduated from high school. Only 23 percent of these men had previously attended college. The following facts regarding their age background were noted:

Age in Years			
18 years	39%	23 years	3%
19 years	17%	24 years	4%
20 years	11%	25 years	4%
21 years	6%	26 years	10%
22 years	6%		

Curriculum changes in colleges to which the Army and Navy have assigned students have modified history courses in varying ways. The basic history offering in one institution where students remain only five months or less is described by two instructors in history at the Eastern Oregon College of Education, La Grande.

Their occupational backgrounds were as follows:

Occupation before Induction			
Student	42%	Common labor	5%
Skilled labor	27%	Salesman	4%
Clerical	16%	Artist	1%
Agriculture	5%		

PLANNING AND OBJECTIVES

SHORTNESS of time and fullness of schedule necessitated careful planning of subject matter and teaching techniques to meet the special needs of these aviation students. The members of the history department decided to use a contemporary approach, with special emphasis on current developments and their relationship to the war. Accordingly, a course syllabus was prepared with definite teaching and learning objectives in mind.

The general objectives of the history course in the Army aviation-training program at our institution are:

1. To indoctrinate the student with an understanding of and appreciation for the democratic way of life.
2. To give an understanding of the fundamental differences between the free, democratic philosophy of life and government and the totalitarian philosophy.
3. To create a willingness to sacrifice for that principle.

The specific objectives are:

1. To give the students a knowledge and understanding of the causes of the First World War, and of war in general.
2. To give an understanding of the reasons for the failure of the post-war settlement following the First World War.
3. To give a knowledge of the forces giving rise to such leaders as Mussolini and Hitler, and to their systems of government.
4. To give an understanding of the manner in which the totalitarian powers proceeded from

aggression to aggression, leading to the current world-wide conflict.

5. To acquaint the student with the general military strategy and principal campaigns of the present war.

6. To give an understanding of the effect of present-day events upon the post-war world.

APPROACH AND CONTENT

QUITE obviously, the situation scarcely requires a course in ancient, medieval, or even modern European history. Nor could our objectives be best achieved through a study of American or English history alone. A course in recent and contemporary history offered the best solution. In the sixty class hours allotted for the history course an attempt is made to give as thorough an understanding as possible of the events of the past thirty years. The original syllabus, formulated co-operatively by the members of the history department, has been continually subjected to re-evaluation and improvement.

The course begins with a unit on the causes and events of the First World War. Because the students are all potential Army Air Corps officers, considerable emphasis is placed fittingly upon the military phases of that conflict. Nine to twelve hours of instruction are allotted to this unit. The second unit concerns itself with the Paris peace conference of 1919 and the treaties which arose out of it. Here the Treaty of Versailles and the problems to which it gave birth receive major attention. Five or six class hours are spent in the discussion of this subject.

The League of Nations, its organization, its strength and weakness, and the futile efforts at the promotion of international peace during the decade of the twenties constitute the third unit of the course, to which two hours are allocated.

With the next general unit, we come really to the heart of the course. In the syllabus this is listed as: "The Effect of the War Upon the Leading Powers." Here attention is focused largely upon the world-shaking revolutions that occurred in Russia, Italy, and Germany in the post-war era. It is here that the instructor has the opportunity to point out the fundamental differences between the free and the totalitarian philosophies of government and life, and the necessity for crushing dictatorships. As planned, ten to twelve class hours are allotted to this vital subject.

For the fifth unit, "The Present Conflict," about five class hours have been assigned for a

discussion of the preliminary aggressions, such as the Sino-Japanese conflict, the Italo-Ethiopian crisis, Hitler's occupation of the Rhineland, the Spanish Civil War, the Sudetenland crisis and the extinction of Czechoslovakia. Seven hours in this unit are devoted to the military campaigns of the present conflict.

Finally, some time is given to a discussion and interpretation of post-war plans for free democratic development.

The accelerated offensive action on the part of the United States and its allies has led to the transfer of many students to an advanced-training base before the end of the five-months period originally specified. Inspecting Army personnel, however, still emphasize the view that thorough instruction is preferable to rapid and hasty coverage.

COMMENT ON THE PROGRAM

ALTHOUGH the history program for the training of aviation students is relatively new, it has had gratifying results at Eastern Oregon College of Education both from the viewpoint of the student and the instructor. Many men have developed a better understanding of the war and its backgrounds. They have acquired more of an international outlook upon world affairs, which should go a long way in defeating the isolationist and purely national complex which undoubtedly helped bring on the present war. Most aviation students are extremely eager to take advantage of the opportunity to learn and are both conscientious and co-operative in their attitude toward and participation in the course. They evince a keen interest in all phases of this war and in the problems which will confront the post-war world to which most of them will return as civilians.

In comparison with most regular college history courses, the following deductions can be made concerning the teaching of history in an Army aviation student-training program.

1. Due to lack of outside study time, the aviation student must necessarily "learn" history while in the classroom.

2. To make the course as interesting and valuable as possible to aviation students, the instructor in an Army program must make a daily survey of current events dealing with the war, and must, wherever possible, draw comparisons and parallels between the current situation and past history.

3. The constant use of maps, both political and topographical, is necessary to keep at high

pitch the interest of the students and to bring to them a full understanding of contemporary events.

4. The instructor must take into consideration the varying backgrounds of the students.

5. The instructor must bear in mind at all times that the students are being trained for a career in aviation, and that subject matter and approach must necessarily be related to this primary objective of the student.

The instructor can no longer resort to the instructional methods that have become traditional. His teaching techniques must be developed for the specialized purpose of introduc-

ing the uninitiated military student to the rudiments of contemporary history. The instructor is forced to select the most effective method of presentation and must present those facts and ideas of history which will most clearly achieve the objectives of the course. The instructor must keep to the point and to his objectives more rigidly than in civilian teaching. The Army program, furthermore, affords the instructor an admirable opportunity to meet and to observe men from all walks of American life, and from all sections of the country, to a far greater extent than is ordinarily possible in civilian college teaching.

... Woodrow Wilson did not favor, nor do I for a moment advocate, an international outlook which ignores the existence and the essentially beneficent role of nations in our world order. Nations are facts of history, just as physical as other facts with which science is concerned, and if we mean to build surely we shall build the future international structure on these facts of science and of history. We shall leave untouched the national sovereignty of the State and all it legitimately implies—territory, flag, language, culture, political and administrative institutions—in fact all that the term “self-determination” connotes. But over and above all will be an international regime of law and order which will maintain peace and guarantee to each state the peaceful pursuit of each its own life free from fear of aggression by its neighbors, in fact a regime under which the aggressor will be an outlaw to be dealt with by the international authority as such. The criminal law will be extended to the international sphere with the appropriate machinery of punishment. While it would thus be wrong to say that in the Covenant of the League of Nations we went too far and attempted too much, it is perhaps true that its founders were dominated by idealistic expectations badly out of tune with the hard realism of the times. And it was this neglected realism which finally prevailed and exploded our idealism. . . . We have to face the emergence of the forgotten underworld and the impact of Hitler's new gospel of hate, force and domination. We dreamt of disarmament and a world made safe for democracy and forgot that freedom unbacked by force is a mere illusion, and that democracy without leadership is weaker than water. Our neglect to provide for adequate force to maintain security against aggression and for democratic leadership among the nations placed the world at the mercy of the Nazi reaction, and our civilization of the West in the most mortal peril. This time we shall have to mix realism with our idealism and provide leadership for freedom. Thus we shall commence the peace with the group already existing in the United Nations and organize them for future peace and security. Neutrals can join in due course, while the defeated enemy powers can wait until they have been cured of their dangerous obsessions and distorted outlook on the world. A period of convalescence under proper guardianship will do them good; and meanwhile the United Nations—an already existing fact—can be organized as the foundation of the new free world on which the permanent peace structure for the whole world can be built in due course . . . (Jan Christian Smuts, December 28, 1943).

Black Marketing

Orville A. Hitchcock

THE necessity for rationing and price control in time of war is generally accepted. Rationing is a method of sharing scarce essential materials among our civilians, our military forces, and our allies. Price control is a method of preventing the use of higher wartime income in run-away competitive bidding for a reduced supply of consumer goods. Both rationing and price control are basic to the full mobilization of the national economy in support of the war.

Our ability as a people to support fully the home-front economic program is one measure of the effectiveness of the national war effort. In a real sense, the war puts our democracy to the test. To win we must learn how to live and work together—how to share together the good and the bad. Black marketing is an indication of failure to work in unity towards a common goal. It is an area of primary concern to the social studies teacher.

NATURE, CAUSES, AND DANGERS

BLACK marketing is a method of evading fair and democratic wartime economic restrictions for the purpose of private gain. Mainly it consists of:

1. Buying or selling scarce goods at higher than maximum legal prices.
2. Buying or selling rationed goods without transfer of the proper number of ration stamps.
3. Buying or selling rationed goods with stamps illegally procured.
4. Buying or selling more rationed goods than the individual consumer is entitled to receive or the individual merchant is entitled to sell.

Black marketing is caused by carelessness, ignorance, and greed. It is given impetus by the sharp rise in national income during time of war. The

consumer is as much to blame as the producer and the seller.

Those who want more than their proper share, and are willing to pay more than the lawful price for it, are one main support of illegal wartime trade. Those who do not obey rationing and price rules because of misunderstanding and just plain carelessness are another main support. Those who want more than their proper profit are the third main support.

The key to the control of black marketing rests mainly with retailers and consumers. Black marketing is not primarily a gangster activity, though it often originates in a criminal conspiracy. It is, instead, the sum total of a large number of relatively small-scale violations on the part of sellers and buyers. Essentially it is a case of many drops making the ocean. One violation by itself means little; millions of violations added up mean a great deal. If each of us will be satisfied with his rationed share and will refuse to buy above ceiling prices, black marketing will come to a quick end.

Black marketing is likely to cause vital damage to the whole war program. In total war, food and other essential commodities are munitions of war just as surely as are bullets and machine guns. All vital supplies must be used with maximum effectiveness for the war effort.

Black marketing jeopardizes the rationing program. Rationing has been established to insure everyone a fair share of those goods which have been made scarce by the war. Black markets permit some people to get more than their share. This means serious dislocation of our food supply at home, for the Army and Navy, and for our Lend-Lease program, and the ultimate defeat of rationing. Rationing succeeds only when everyone plays the game according to the rules.

Black marketing causes prices to go up—it leads to inflation. Operators are willing to run the risk of severe penalties for violations of the law only because of the promise of huge profits. Buyers bidding against each other for black-market goods play into the hands of these profiteers.

This article, which continues a series dealing with problems of rationing and price control, is contributed by a member of the staff of the Educational Services Branch, Office of Price Administration.

Black marketing cheats patriotic citizens—both buyers and sellers. It makes the share less for the law-abiding worker and his family. It greatly hampers the man doing business legitimately. The honest retailer cannot get the goods which he needs for his trade. The marketing facilities of the law-abiding processor and wholesaler stand idle at times while his costs mount.

Black marketing weakens our home front. It promotes defiance of the law; it makes cheating seem smart. It is an easy step from the ignoring of one wartime rule to the violation of others. Discord is promoted. City workers, if they must pay higher prices, blame government, farmers, and processors for the situation. Farmers wonder why they should work long hours to line the pockets of the black marketeer. Only a united nation can wage war successfully. A fair distribution at fair prices helps make town and country, home front, and war front work together for victory.

Black markets cause a substantial loss in strategic by-products. The black market in meat, for example, causes waste of such products as hides, adrenalin, insulin, gelatin for film, fertilizers, bone meal, etc.

Black markets jeopardize health. The more undercover the market, the more dangerous it is. Commodities which pass through the hands of many of these operators are not inspected and, in the case of food, may have been processed under unsanitary conditions.

HOW SCHOOLS CAN HELP

SOME projects and activities being carried out in lower grades are:

1. Establishing model grocery stores illustrating buying with ration points and at ceiling prices.
2. Writing verses and stories on the theme "Rationing is fair and democratic."
3. Composing a classroom skit or assembly program showing how black marketing works.

Some projects and activities being carried out in the intermediate grades are:

1. Making maps and charts showing where rationed products come from, and indicating the reasons for rationing.

2. Keeping a scrapbook of newspaper stories on black-marketing operations.

3. Giving speeches and writing themes on "The Dangers of Black Marketing," "Rationing and Price Control in Other Countries," "The Home Front and the War," and other subjects.

Some projects and activities being carried out at the high school level are:

1. Making charts of the food requirements of our armed forces and our allies.

2. Setting up practice price panels, patterned after those of the local War Price and Rationing Board.

3. Holding debates on topics such as: "Quality control is essential in any successful price control program."

4. Holding a series of discussion or study meetings on rationing, price control, and rent control.

(The OWI Motion Picture Bureau has made available a 16-mm. film on Black Marketing.)

SOME QUESTIONS FOR CLASSROOM DISCUSSION

WHAT are the reasons for establishing rationing and price control? Have you and your parents had trouble buying anything you wanted due to the war? Why do prices tend to rise in wartime? Have you and your family had to pay more for food, clothing, shelter, luxuries, durable consumer goods? What are the dangers of inflation? How do rationing and price control help to control inflation? How do rationing and price control help to give everyone a fair share?

How can you and your family learn about rationing and price-control regulations? Why must storekeepers post their maximum legal prices? Why do ration-point values change from time to time? Why do price ceilings vary from store to store and from city to city?

Why is black marketing often referred to as wartime sabotage? What is the extent of black marketing in your community? What are the bad effects of black marketing? Who will suffer most if black marketing grows? Who will gain the most? How does it hurt our armed forces? How does it affect the home front war effort?

How can we stamp out black marketing? How can citizens be made to see that it is their patriotic duty to observe rationing and price control rules? To whom should violations be reported?

The Long Paper in History

Millicent B. Rex

THE problem of providing effectively for supplementary reading and for training in elementary research techniques is one with which the teacher is always struggling. For achieving this purpose the assigning of a long paper is a respected educational procedure, although it cannot be denied that the exercise presents various difficulties, arising chiefly from its demands upon library facilities and upon the time of both teacher and student. However, given at least a moderate library, small college-preparatory or other classes where the students are as a whole relatively able, and a teaching schedule arranged so as to permit a good deal of individual conference work, much can be done to make the long paper one of the most valuable of historical exercises, in that it calls forth and develops in the student to a marked degree initiative, thoroughness, continuity of effort, and analytical and creative power. But the best possible results from the long paper require careful planning and management.

The first essential for teachers is a good knowledge of the field itself and especially of its possibilities for teaching; the knowledge of the general reader or the university student is not enough. Only experience will make the teacher aware of what is useful in a particular course and of what is possible with his students and his library.

ADJUSTING RESOURCES AND INTERESTS

BUT in any case the success of the paper depends to a great extent upon the earlier stages of its assignment. This means, first of all, care in the selection of the topic, both in relation to the field of study and in relation to each

particular student's interests and abilities. Even when such care is taken some students of limited ability always seem to get themselves saddled with subjects beyond their powers, while some students of superior ability reach impasses because of lack of library references or else spend hours of faithful effort on subjects that in the end turn out to have less value than they seemed to promise when first projected. Such mistakes occur mainly because there are often not enough really good topics to go around. This is likely to happen even with small classes if the teacher wishes to avoid repeating the same assignments from year to year, both for his own sake—to forestall boredom from reading the same topic too often—and also to prevent superior papers from being bequeathed from class to class, as conceivably might happen if exactly the same set of topics were given out repeatedly. Moreover, the greater the variety of topics, the more professional pride the individual student is likely to take in being the only "expert" in his field.

Once the topics are assigned, the next step is to follow up the work through individual consultation, while the students are in the process of preparing their material. This is especially important in the case of the weaker students or with those who have not had adequate previous training. Even with able students, guidance is often needed in suggesting places where material might be discovered, or in organizing the material when it is collected. At this point the teacher can often foresee trouble and prevent unnecessary complications. Sometimes it is even desirable to change the angle of approach completely.

During these early stages of the project, the students are generally required to present two preliminary reports, although for some of the types of papers here discussed, such reports may be partially dispensed with. The making of these reports serves a double purpose. It gives the teacher a basis from which to offer assistance and suggestion, and it forestalls procrastination on the part of the student. The first report consists of a tentative bibliography, indicating where

The head of the department of history in the Madeira School, Greenway, Virginia, offers suggestions and warnings in connection with the use of long papers. Though developed in a college-preparatory school where classes are small, the suggestions should be valuable for any teacher concerned with the use of sources and critical treatment of historical materials.

relevant material has been found, or where, upon cursory inspection, it is presumably obtainable. The second report comes a week or two later when the student has had time to digest the material sufficiently to frame a working outline. Upon receiving each of these reports, the teacher may interpose with suggestions for further reading, or, in the case of the outline, with advice regarding questions of expansion, limitation, or rearrangement of topics. Both the outline and the bibliography in perfected and revised form accompany the final paper.

The matter of footnotes is less easy to handle. Early in the year their use is discussed, both in class and with individuals separately, and for this purpose the booklet, *Directions for Writing a Long Paper* by Elizabeth R. Payne (Wellesley, Massachusetts, 1942), has been found helpful, especially if each student can possess his own copy for ready reference. In writing papers, students are constantly encouraged to include footnotes and in some cases footnotes are insisted upon, but a completely satisfactory performance in this respect seems difficult of attainment. Even partial success is worth while, however, as in this way students are at least made aware of the existence of this piece of apparatus, though they may continue to be negligent or indiscriminating in using it themselves.

The chief fault of the long paper when carelessly handled is that it may offer, not an opportunity for real thought and for the correct use of historical techniques, but simply an invitation to copy passages from reference books wholesale, without acknowledgment or discrimination. Many teachers become disgusted with the whole procedure when this is the only result obtained. Moreover, even when on guard against this practice, it is not always easy to detect it. Careful assignment of the topic, however, will do something to make the practice less likely.

LIMITING AND FRAMING TOPICS

THE first rule to be followed is a time-honored one in all history and English work, but one of which the young teacher is often ignorant. That is, never assign an unqualified topic, such as "Fox," "Jefferson," or "Edward VII," but rather, "Fox's Attitude toward the French Revolution," or "Jefferson's Relations with Adams," or "Edward VII's Interest in Foreign Affairs." Biographies lend themselves better to this splitting-up process than do general topics, though something can also be done with "Conservation of Natural Resources" and

"British Interests in the Mediterranean" by limiting the field of investigation to one geographical area or one period of time. In all these subjects, a list of the chief events in a man's whole life, or the chronology of a general topic, may be required as an appendix to the paper, to ensure that the student has also surveyed to some degree the whole field, even though he is actually reporting on a limited aspect only. Maps may also sometimes serve this purpose.

A second type of paper based on the biography or the general topic, but involving more careful thought and choice of material, is the compare-and-contrast study. This may be used for general topics, such as "The Position of Women in Greece and in Rome," "Greek and Roman Architecture Compared," etc. But it is rather easier to adapt this form of paper to the biography. With subjects for which a great mass of information is available, the comparison must cover some limited aspect, but in the case of characters about whom relatively little is known—for example, figures in ancient history—the whole career of each man may be considered. In such an assignment, while I have found persons whose careers were buried in a mass of minor political detail—such as Pelopidas and Epaminondas, for example—scarcely worth working over, nevertheless, such assignments as "Cicero and Demosthenes," "Augustus and Pericles," "Alexander and Julius Caesar" all proved eminently successful. In such papers, in order to make sure that the comparisons and contrasts will be pointed up sharply, the students are given a list of sub-topics to be adapted to the possibilities of each subject. For example:

1. Education, youth, first steps to prominence.
2. Problems faced, problems solved (often better handled under items 3 and 4 than as a separate point).
3. Military experience, achievements and failures, policies.
4. Political experience, achievements and failures, policies.
5. Relations with military or political associates.
6. Intellectual or artistic interests.
7. Character and personality. (This is the hardest for the students to do well, because of the pitfalls of hasty generalization.)
8. Importance in history.

SOURCE STUDIES

ANOTHER useful variation in the biographical or topical paper is the study based solely upon gleanings from an original source: "John Adams as Seen in his Letters," "The Intellectual Life of the Restoration as Discovered in Pepys' Diary," or "The Wealthy Roman

Country Gentleman as Seen in Pliny's Letters." This has special value in forcing the student to do his own observing, selecting, and organizing of material, with less likelihood of his leaning on a secondary source than might be the case with some types of papers previously suggested.

Other firsthand sources that make good subjects for papers are the Greek tragedies. With leading questions to guide them, the students may be led to a useful analysis that illuminates the whole world of Greek thought in a way no secondary source can possibly do. Such questions as the following are asked, the answers to be illustrated throughout by concrete examples taken from speeches, choruses, incidents:

1. What different functions does the chorus perform in this play?
2. Can any characteristic Greek ideas be discovered in the play, such as city-state loyalty, filial duty, the rule of fate, retribution, restraint in the face of violence or emotion? Is there any abstract theme derived from these or other ideas behind the events of the plot?
3. What are the most dramatic scenes, incidents, speeches, in the play? Who are the most interesting characters? Select some part of the play that you especially admire for its dramatic power, its delineation of character, or its poetic quality. (There are few students who do not respond to the dramatic force of tragedies with a good deal of pleasure, and their analyses of the characterizations are often astonishingly acute.)

Then, hoping to find them unconsciously aware of aspects of the plays that are typical of different dramatists, I ask such questions as "Is there anything realistic or modern-sounding about this play? Are the gods treated as you would expect? What is most uplifting about the impression you get from the play?" For all these points I do not expect really good answers, but only wish to stimulate their observation and their thinking. However, I often get agreeable surprises, and always feel that such an examination of an original source of the first magnitude is well worth while.

CRITICAL STUDIES

A TYPE of study quite different from those heretofore discussed also has great value. One version of this type is a report on a historical novel or drama. In this case the report does not consist of a recounting of the plot, including fictitious and historical incidents alike, but instead covers only such points as the following:

1. What is the period of history and what are the chief historical events covered by this novel?
2. What historical figures are encountered, either by report, or actually appearing in the novel as characters?
3. What allusions are made to the culture and civilization of the period (e.g., social, religious, economic matters)?

4. Do fictitious characters have any historical value as representatives of political, religious, social trends of the time?

5. Does the author show any predilection for any person or point of view described?

To these queries are also added the requirement that a map covering the locale of the story be prepared and that some of the historical facts be checked against several reliable sources, including original sources if these are available. Where the novel goes into great detail regarding some one or two events, it is considered sufficient to verify only these events. Where there are only brief isolated items to verify, about eight or ten are required. It is obvious that each novel requires slightly different handling, both because of its own nature and because of the difficulty of getting material for the verification of obscure facts. I find that this exercise not only gives students an especially thorough knowledge of a special set of facts, but that it develops alertness of observation and a critical historical sense.

Another exercise that accomplishes the same purpose even more effectively is the careful study of the same general material as treated in several different textbooks. If only two texts are involved, the material may be a whole chapter, such as the reign of Charles II or the history of the Hebrews. If the topic is a limited one, such as the reforms of the Gracchi or the causes of the Spanish-American War, four or five texts may perhaps be examined with reference to:

1. Contradictions of fact.
2. Variations in the amount of space used to cover each item.
3. Variations in arrangement and emphasis. (What is entirely omitted? hastily passed over? dwelt upon at length? worded emphatically?)
4. Variations in the relative quantity of fact and of generalization.
5. Interpretation and expression of opinion, open or implied.

Time and lack of suitable reference material generally prevent any final conclusions as to which treatment of the topic is most accurate or most satisfactory, but the exercise is justified, I believe, because it calls the students' attention to the essential nature of historical writing. Not long ago one of my students back from college told me that nothing in all her preparatory history was so immediately helpful as this exercise.

A similar performance may be carried out for works that are not textbooks, but since the material is apt to be more detailed and confusing, I have not found it so satisfactory for students of high school age as the textbook study.

Federal Expenditures for the Armed Forces, 1799-1943

Eber Jeffery

IF YOU had been one of those well-publicized but elusive individuals known as "average citizens" just a century ago, it would have cost you slightly less than sixty cents a year to support our armed forces. The total bill for a family of five for the year 1844 was not quite \$3. For the present year you, the average citizen, will have a bill for the armed forces of about \$540 and your family of five is paying \$2700 in cash and obligations. Arms expenditure per person from 1829 to 1838 averaged approximately 78 cents. In the corresponding decade a century later the average was about \$8.40, almost eleven times as much. Obviously, most of the enormous increase from \$3 a family in 1844 to 900 times as much in 1944 is due to the prodigious cost of present-day warfare.

The staggering cost of the current war has aroused interest in previous military expenditures. The immense burden of war costs has been a common subject for popular discussion and writing, but few standard histories and fewer textbooks offer any analysis of such costs in relation to fiscal policy. Some treatment in terms of per capita expenditure and with reference to the national income and total Federal expenditure should be illuminating.

DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

EXPENDITURES for the navy as well as the army and other armed forces are classified as military costs in this paper, but only funds actually disbursed through the War Department and the Navy Department are considered. Pensions, Veterans' Bureau disbursements, and the

expense of supplementary war activities are not included. It should be noted, however, that in the period between the Civil War and the World War of 1917 a large part of War Department funds, often as much as 40 per cent annually, was devoted to the improvement of rivers and harbors. Many of these projects served no military purpose whatever. Panama Canal costs were also met with funds allocated to the War Department.

Everybody now refers to the national income as if it were a traditionally familiar concept. Actually it is a comparatively new and rather inexact abstraction. For our purpose national income is perhaps suitably defined as the sum of all payments made to all individuals in the nation in a given calendar year. Yet measurement of real income in dollars for our whole population is not a simple matter. Technical and somewhat varying processes for determining the income of various economic groups are in use by different research organizations. Income figures for the years 1799 to 1929 in the accompanying table have been taken, however, from Robert F. Martin's thorough study published by the National Industrial Conference Board,¹ and those for the years 1939 to 1942 are taken from publications of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the Department of Commerce. The figure of \$142 billion for 1943 is currently accepted by many authorities.

Amounts in the Table, expressed in dollars, have been taken from the records without adjustments as to purchasing power and without relation to any standard index year. Sound income estimates have not been published for the war years prior to 1900. The figures given for the earlier war years are the present writer's estimates and may be considered crude interpolations or guesses somewhat related to price indexes, wage scales, and production figures. For the nineteenth century, Martin's investigation

How much has our military establishment cost us in peacetime and in war? What relationship has existed between military expenditures, national income, and total Federal expenditures? These are the questions considered in an article contributed by a teacher of history in the Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D.C.

¹ *National Income in the United States, 1799-1838*. New York: National Industrial Conference Board, 1939. Pp. 6-7.

was based on data taken from the census reports. Every decade the Federal census tabulated information on agricultural production, manufactures, and other types of business for the preceding calendar year. This practice accounts for the use of the years 1799, 1809, etc. Information

have been cautious about military appropriations to such an extent that we might be described as penurious. As the table shows, the cost of our armed forces has risen steadily, but the peacetime totals have remained small. Chart I shows that for 100 of the 143 years since 1800, our an-

EXPENDITURES FOR THE ARMED FORCES IN RELATION TO THE NATIONAL INCOME AND TO TOTAL FEDERAL EXPENDITURES
Census Years and War Years, 1799 to 1943¹

Year	Total National Income in Millions	Per Capita National Income	Total Federal Expenditures in Millions	THE ARMED FORCES			
				Expenditures in Millions	Expenditures Per Capita	Per Cent of National Income	Per Cent of Federal Expenditures
1799	\$ 677	\$ 131	\$ 9.67	\$ 5.33	\$ 1.05	.8	55
1809	915	130	10.28	5.77	.83	.6	56
1812	900	119	20.28	15.78	2.10	1.8	78
1813	960	123	31.68	26.10	3.34	2.7	82
1814	1,010	125	34.72	27.66	3.43	2.7	80
1815	1,070	129	32.71	23.45	2.83	2.2	72
1819	876	93	21.46	10.35	1.12	1.2	48
1829	975	78	15.20	8.03	.65	.8	53
1839	1,631	98	26.90	15.10	.92	.9	56
1846	1,910	93	27.77	17.25	.84	.9	62
1847	1,980	94	57.28	46.21	2.19	2.3	81
1848	2,200	101	45.38	34.91	1.61	1.6	77
1849	2,420	107	45.05	24.64	1.10	1.0	55
1859	4,311	140	69.07	37.87	1.25	.9	55
1861	4,600	144	66.55	35.40	1.11	.8	53
1862	4,950	151	474.76	437.04	13.34	8.8	92
1863	5,300	158	714.74	662.50	19.71	12.5	93
1864	5,900	171	865.32	776.52	22.54	13.2	90
1865	6,950	197	1,297.56	1,153.94	32.73	16.6	89
1869	6,827	180	322.87	98.50	2.55	1.4	31
1879	7,227	147	266.95	55.55	1.14	.8	21
1889	10,701	173	299.29	65.81	1.08	.6	22
1898	13,900	191	443.37	150.82	2.07	1.1	34
1899	15,364	205	605.07	293.78	3.96	1.9	49
1909	26,456	292	693.74	308.03	3.43	1.2	44
1917	46,376	454	1,977.68	617.57	6.09	1.3	31 ²
1918	56,596	550	12,696.70	6,148.80	59.76	10.9	48
1919	62,945	604	18,514.88	11,011.39	105.58	17.5	59
1929	79,498	654	3,298.86	790.51	6.55	1.0	24
1939	70,800	543	8,707.09	1,367.98	10.48	1.9	16
1942	119,800	894	32,396.59	22,905.10	171.10	19.1	71
1943	142,000	1,047	78,178.89	63,153.39	465.72	44.5	81

¹ Prior to 1843 the Federal fiscal year was identical with the calendar year. Since that date the Federal fiscal year has extended from July 1 to June 30. National income is given for calendar years. Hence, for 1846 and later, amounts tabulated for income and for expenditures do not represent exactly the same months. For instance, income in 1909 is for the twelve months, January 1 to December 31; but expenditures are for the twelve months, July 1, 1908 to June 30, 1909.

² The low figure of 31 per cent of total Federal expenditures for the armed forces in 1917 is due to the fact that \$385 million were paid out by the Treasury for obligations of foreign governments and entered under civil and miscellaneous expenditures.

gathered by the census of 1790 was insufficient to enable economists to project their indexes backward with acceptable results.

WHAT THE FIGURES SHOW

OUR wars have been expensive—far more so than direct military expenditures alone would indicate. Yet, in general, as a nation we

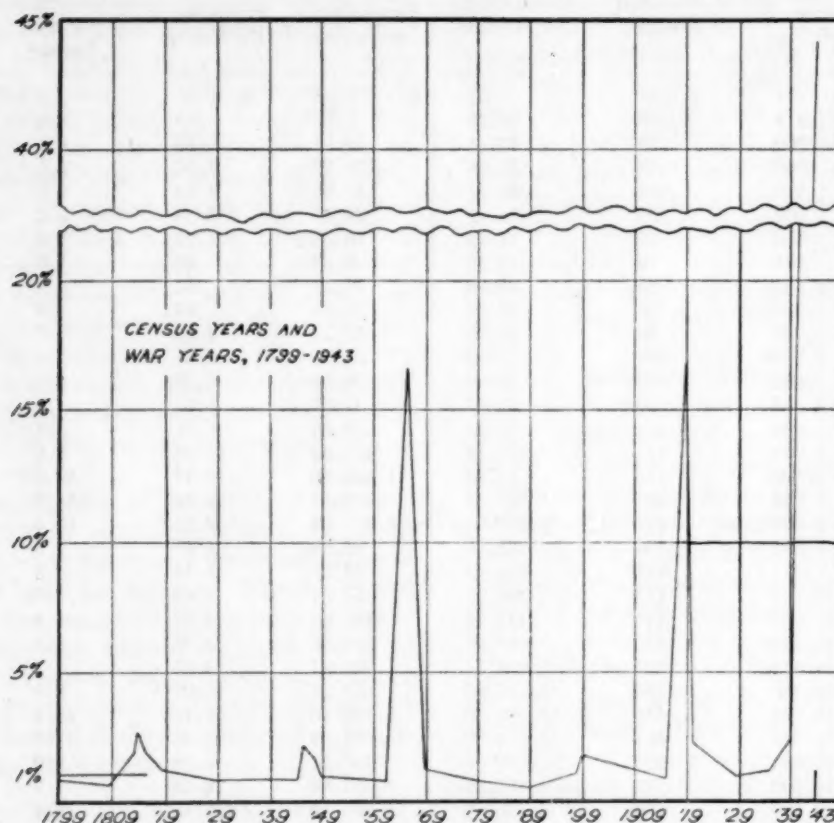
nual expenditure remained so near one per cent of our national income that an observer might almost question whether a statutory standard of one per cent had been set. Moreover, Chart I shows that armament expense has remained continually below 2 per cent of the national income except in time of war. Not even during the War of 1812, the Mexican War, or the

Spanish-American War did this proportion rise to as much as 3 per cent.

ER CAPITA expenditures for the armed forces have also been kept low in peacetime. Back in 1809 the cost of military activity in the United States was 83 cents per person, six-tenths of one per cent of his income. Eighty years later, 1889, it was \$1.08 per person, again six-tenths of

the population for the armed services in war years prior to 1941 touched peaks in 1865 at \$33; and in 1919 at \$106; roughly one-sixth of an individual's income in each case. (The accuracy of the income figure for 1865, my own estimate, is admittedly open to question.) The enormous increase in 1943 raised the cost to \$466 for every inhabitant, or over 44 per cent of his income. During the first six months of the fiscal year

CHART I: PER CENT OF THE NATIONAL INCOME USED FOR THE ARMED FORCES



one per cent of his income. In forty years more, 1929, the ratio had risen to one per cent. And the figure had not reached 2 per cent ten years later, by 1939, a year of world-wide turbulence, although government spending had jumped 275 per cent during this ten-year period. For that year of doubt, 1940, arms expenditures exceeded 2 per cent of income, the first such occasion in time of peace. In nine of the fourteen peace years recorded in the Table the proportion amounted to one per cent or less.

The wars of 1861, 1917, and 1941 mark the only striking rises in military costs above the growth of income. Expenditures per capita of

1944, direct arms expenditures were equal to about half the national income, amounting to an annual per capita rate of approximately \$540. Our legendary average person had \$80 more left for other purposes in 1943, however, than he had in 1919, even if most of this was used up for civil government expense.

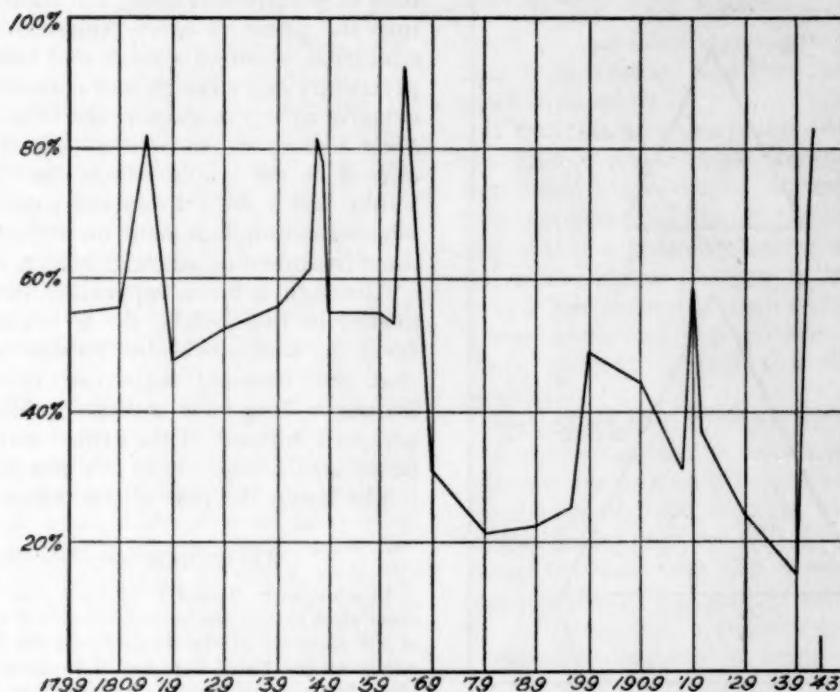
It appears that increased total costs of government during wartime tend to carry over permanently into the years that follow. But military expenditures have tended to revert quickly to proportionate pre-war levels. Chart II shows this trend in part in the relation of military costs to total Federal expenditures.

THE graphic representation, in Chart II, of the proportion of Federal expenditures disbursed for the armed services shows wide variations. For fifty of the years from 1800 to 1870, the outlay for military purposes was approximately half of the total Federal expenditures. But war years stand out sharply. The highest

for the peak year of the Civil War but amounted to only one sixth of the year's total federal outlay.

COMPARATIVE military costs per capita of the population are shown in Chart III for peace years and war years. The average annual

CHART II: PER CENT OF FEDERAL EXPENDITURES USED FOR THE ARMED FORCES¹
CENSUS YEARS AND WAR YEARS, 1799-1943



rate, 93 per cent, appears for 1863; with the next highest rate, outside of the Civil War period, the 82 per cent for 1813. Reports for 1944 will likely show a new high for the twentieth century of close to 90 per cent of government expenditures for direct war purposes. The low of 16 per cent for 1939 was higher than for some years of the past decade for which figures are not shown.

In the early 1800's the percentage of Federal moneys devoted to military ends seems large simply because it did not cost much then to run the whole government. War expenditures of \$700 million in 1863 amounted to 93 per cent of the total; but eighty years later, in 1943, war expenditures of 900 times as much were only 81 per cent of the total. Our expenditure of one and a third billion in 1939 was greater than the expenditure

expenditure for each of us was 34 times as much in 1942-1943 as in the average year from 1922 to 1941. During the war of 1917 the yearly cost per person was 26 times the average for the preceding twenty years. And a year of the Civil War was 20 times as expensive as a typical year of the 1840's and 1850's. Congress and the policy makers are continually faced with the problem, ever changing and ever growing more serious, of determining the size and kinds of armament that will best fit our economy, preserve our national security, and promote international stability.

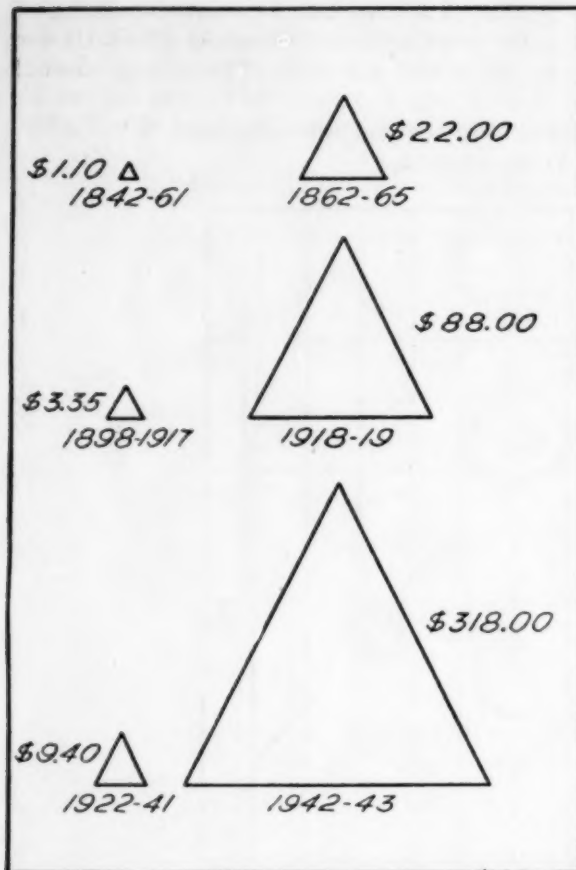
CONCLUSIONS

THROUGHOUT our history we have expended relatively modest sums on the armed forces except in actual wartime.

National policy as reflected in military expenditures has failed to anticipate, by more than a few months, any war in which this nation has

¹ Payments toward the retirement of the public debt are excluded from total Federal expenditures since record of the borrowed funds was entered when they were expended.

CHART III: THE ARMED FORCES AVERAGE ANNUAL EXPENDITURE PER INHABITANT WAR YEARS AND PRE-WAR YEARS¹



¹ The small triangles represent the average annual expenditure for every person of the population for twenty years prior to each great war. The large triangles represent the average annual expenditure per person for the war periods.

engaged, except possibly the war of 1941, when such spending had shown a sharp rise for two years.

No evidence appears in these data to warrant fear of excessively burdensome armaments in the future. After each war thus far, expenditures for the armed forces have declined to former levels in relation to the national income and to a lower per cent of the total Federal expenditures.

Armament expense has always been a major item of government costs. Taxation reaches deep into the purse of every American family. And education, through schools and colleges, reaches practically every family and constitutes our most effective agency in shaping the lives of the people. Since history is one of the subjects most widely offered in the whole educational program, the public has a right to expect history courses to offer some enlightenment on military policy and some treatment of financial aspects of the subject.

Although definite supporting evidence is not offered in this article, the writer is inclined to favor the widely held, but hardly startling, belief that our national legislative program should include a long-view military policy with more adequate support of the armed forces in time of peace, which might help as a war preventive and might lessen the cost of war when it occurs.

REFERENCES AND SOURCES

In addition to Robert F. Martin's study of national income, cited earlier, the author has used the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the State of the Finances for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1942; the Combined Statement of Receipts, Expenditures and Balances of the United States, issued annually by the Government Printing Office; the Daily Statements of the United States Treasury, especially for August 16, November 15, and December 15, 1943; and George Jaszi, "National Product and Income in the First Half of 1943," *Survey of Current Business*, August, 1943, pp. 9-14.

Helping the Mentally Handicapped Child Adjust to War Conditions

Bernardine G. Schmidt

THE phrase "since Pearl Harbor" has been accepted as the marking off of an era sharply distinct from that preceding it. Brothers, fathers, and uncles in military service, home life drastically changed, and ordinary routines disrupted and swept away have all contributed their share, albeit unintentionally, to the increased insecurity experienced today by adolescent children. That insecurity is manifest even more sharply in the emotional reactions of the mentally handicapped child. Without special expert guidance this group of youngsters is grossly incapable of coping with the major disturbances which come in a world at war.

The greatest need of these teen-age boys and girls is for an understanding, although necessarily a limited one, of the over-all picture of war conditions, war measures, and, most important of all, the principles for which we fight. They need to know some of the military aspects of war, global geography, the reading and interpretation of maps, the routines of selective service, the nature of military governments, and policies in occupied territories. Equally important is their need for understanding of home-front activities: victory gardens, salvage drives, and campaigns for war bonds.

They must also know and implement such basic principles as racial, religious, and national tolerance. They must recognize and respect the rights of individual personality, the responsi-

bility of individuals and groups to themselves and to each other. The Four Freedoms must be more than words.

Through such a comprehensive picture of total war and its implications for the daily living of individual members of society, the mentally handicapped child can act more intelligently and can obtain a greater measure of security by an understanding of the way in which his actions fit into the general pattern of living in wartime. These understandings contribute to his emotional stability through this added measure of security.

He is also helped in his efforts to meet fast-changing situations by vocational-guidance programs which will help him to acquire basic skills in the use of hand tools, as well as in the academic fields, and yet will integrate this vocational training with the development of other areas necessary for general adjustment, so that he will grow into a competent and employable personality, capable of being trained in some specific area where his eagerness and enthusiasm can serve the goal he shares, the goal of United Nations victory.

WARTIME INSECURITY

IN ONE Chicago lower vocational center are boys and girls from twelve to sixteen years of age, whose intelligence-test performance classifies them as definitely mentally handicapped; their IQ's all range below 70. The home problems of each are widely different even in so-called normal times; now these very differences find bonds of unity through brothers, sisters, and fathers in the service; through their own part-time employment in defense plants; and through their working together in community activities.

When, in response to the query "If you could have three wishes granted, what would they be?", Arthur writes, "(1) Beat the Axis; (2) that no more people ever have to be killed; (3) that I could have lots of money," he is expressing very

Does the war affect the security and stability of adolescents? Can schools pupils—even those who read badly and learn slowly—really advance the war effort? The answers provided here will be of interest to teachers of able as well as "mentally handicapped" pupils. The author, formerly a teacher in the Ericson Lower Vocational Center, Chicago, has been appointed supervisor of the Remedial Reading and Sight Conservation Clinics at the Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute.

markedly the conflicts which he must resolve between the need for victory in a war in which we must win if we are to survive, and his natural horror at loss of human lives. When Martin says, when asked what he'd like to be when he grows up, that he wants to be a good soldier, and adds, "since I'll be drafted soon anyhow,"¹ he thereby indicates his concept of the army as an end in itself, an ever-pressing machine into which he will inevitably be pulled.

Sarah talks pleasantly enough of her home in the neighborhood near school, but she trembles physically when a map is brought in and discussion centers about Italy, where, she hopes, her parents are still alive. She was sent away from them long before Pearl Harbor, and somehow landed here with other early refugees. Shy, pale Anna, who seldom speaks above a whisper and who moves softly as a cat, startles everyone by saying she wishes the war would be over soon so she could make all the noise she wants. She lives in a house where war workers sleep during the day, and she does her conscientious bit to see they are not disturbed.

The tensions under which children live these days are obvious, and need no expert to detect them. The problem which the teacher must meet is that of alleviating these pressures where possible, and of helping each child to adjust to them as easily as can be done.

VICTORY GARDENS

ONE of the ways in which personal insecurity can be mitigated is by helping each boy and girl to find the way in which he can participate constructively in this all-out-for-victory campaign. Orphan Annie's Junior Commandos have behind their characterization a very real therapeutic principle. It is neither necessary nor desirable for these children to attempt to be miniature Supermen, and ape Annie's captures of U-boats and her hob-nobbing with the FBI. But they can very effectively take on bond drives, salvage campaigns, and victory-garden programs.

The most significant program carried on by this center in the year just past was that of the complete management of the Victory Garden project for the center and the entire elementary school. Beginning as far back as early January they made and displayed posters, wrote for and

distributed pamphlets and catalogs from OCD offices, and planned their campaigns for seed sales to come two months later. They made it their business to publicize the drive enthusiastically, and to educate the entire school as to the kinds of vegetables and flowers best suited to local growing conditions, the fine points of setting out a garden for beauty and maximum yield, and the care needed for best results.

Their sales talks were most convincing, resulting in preliminary orders for over two thousand packets of seeds. Upon receipt of this shipment demands for additional seeds became so insistent that the youngsters arranged for and completed two large supplementary school orders.

The detail involved in this project was considerable and required organization, concentration, and accuracy. Preliminary orders were accepted by rooms, each of which turned in to Mike and Rosario—gardeners-in-chief—a list of kinds of seeds desired, the number of packets of each, the total cash value of order, and the payment in advance of that amount. In return the gardening committee made out and issued receipts for the monies and checked off room orders as "in" on their master sheet. All orders were then tallied on a large master school order, since over seventy different varieties of seeds were represented by the separate orders. This combined order was checked and double-checked against the total package orders, against cash received as per receipts issued, and against cash on hand. The boys secured a check for the amount and sent in the order.

When the order was received it was found that the firm had made no attempt to sort and tie like packages together, and the youngsters had first of all to sort the several thousand individual packets before checking the shipment against the original order. Next, they filled each room order, passed it on to Joe, who served as chief order checker, and then sent it by one of a group of five messengers to its proper room. Here the messenger checked the order back to the room chairman, who then OK'd the original order sheet showing acceptance of correctly filled order. These receipted orders were returned and filed by rooms for final checking.

The same procedure was followed with the two supplementary orders. Despite the great numbers of packages involved and the excessive detail required, the only error incurred was the final surplus of two packets of seed unaccounted for by order and unclaimed. There was no discrepancy in the cash account.

¹ These questions are found in "Pupil Report of Interests and Activities," which is Form III of *Diagnostic Child Study Record*, by Paul A. Witty and David Kopel, Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic, 1936.

FOLLOWING the seed sales the youngsters continued the regular distribution of pamphlets and other information on the proper beginnings of the garden. They constructed and planted cold frames for the uninitiated; they built and painted attractive window boxes from discarded lumber.

Their interest and activity kept alive continuous reports from children in other rooms, in the halls, and on the playgrounds, of progress from the time the garden bed was prepared. And when spring swept into vacation they did not forget their care, for when a large group met at their teacher's home for a club meeting one Sunday afternoon during the summer, many crumpled brown bags appeared with them, filled with radishes, carrots, and tomatoes, "from my victory garden."

They did more than sell seeds. The girls participated throughout late summer in assisting with OCD canning demonstrations and themselves put up large quantities of their gardens' yield. They have contributed to scrap and salvage drives, they took charge of the campaign to collect radios, records, books, and magazines for service men. They have contributed to financial drives for the Red Cross, the USO, war relief, and many others. They have bought and sold bonds and stamps regularly, and two of the boys acted as bond aides in the collection and distribution of weekly sales.

ALL-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

SEVERAL of the boys are attendants for the blind children who come to another center within the building. Some of these children live in suburbs not too near the school, and to be an attendant one must prove himself kindly, sympathetic, and very dependable, since the guide must leave his own home doubly early each morning, go out to the suburban home, and return with the blind boy in time for school. The trip must be repeated when taking the boy home again after school in the afternoon. Such a task in all kinds of weather is not easy. But, as Eddie says, "If ya really wanta be fair, ya gotta help the other fella if he can't do so much for himself." Eddie and his fellow guides are going a long way toward implementing a democracy to which many give lip service.

The school maintains a lunchroom which is taxed to capacity, especially in these days of working mothers. Additional workers to care for the overflow cannot be found, so the lower vocational girls assist with the serving and other

duties, leaving the experienced women free for the main tasks of planning, marketing, and cooking. The girls haven't done much advertising, but they give up part of their lunch time to help others be fed.

These boys and girls, although mentally handicapped, yet find time and initiative to make themselves useful at civilian-defense meetings in their blocks and zones, and to report and discuss these activities in our classes at school. Dolores regularly sees that the center receives its weekly *Civilian Alert*, and contributes much to keeping the class and its teacher up to date on neighborhood defense activities.

When plans were being made for evacuation air-raid drills, each child was assigned to his special teacher-guide and it was all clear and simple. Then Mike spoke up: "If there's an air-raid in school-time, I couldn't go with Miss Jones." And why? The answer was very simple. Mike and several others turned out to be block and zone messengers, with previous directions to report to their air-raid wardens for orders immediately upon hearing an alert. So Mike and his friends went back that night to headquarters to ask what they should do in a possible air raid while at school. Their directions were clarified, and the block captain courteously sent a note to the teacher as well, explaining what the boys were to do.

CLASSROOM STUDY

MUCH of the time has been given to the study of the background of our democratic form of government, and to a consideration of problems arising from war conditions, as well as to the understanding of current activities on the home-front demanding consumer co-operation. When Harry listened to discussions of inflation and war bonds at home, he talked it over several times both with his parents and at school, and finally appeared one morning to carry the discussion once again through our class.

"This is the way I got it figured out so far," was his introduction to the following:

WAGES IN WAR TIME AND DEPRESSION

In a depression wages is scarce and prices is scarce but high. But today a man has to work very hard for his defense wages.

Say a man gets \$30 a week and he has two children in his entire family. His rent is \$35 a month. There are four weeks in a month, so he gets \$120 monthly. He puts \$35 away for rent, which leaves him \$85. For gas and electric he puts away \$10 at least. That leaves him about \$75. For eats during the month he spends about \$35, including his meals during lunchtime while he's working. This leaves

him \$40. He takes \$5 for his own expenses and gives his wife \$5 at least to spend, which leaves him \$30. He sets aside \$10 for clothing. This leaves him \$20 for war bonds. If every family could be like this and work and plan and save maybe we wouldn't have to have any depression after this war.

But every family isn't like this one. Maybe some families can't work like this even when there are lots of jobs. Sometimes the fathers get sick and die and the mothers can't work. Sometimes some fathers aren't as smart as other fathers. Some people are blind or crippled. They can't work so good. And some people work hard and they put their money in a bank, then if the bank closes up the people don't get their money back. That is a good reason why smart people buy war bonds so they know the money they save is in a good place.

Harry had done some pretty clear thinking on a very difficult problem, especially for a fifteen-year old, and a retarded one at that. His ideas furnished topics for additional study and reading, and brought forth from Sam still a more involved question: "What happens to the money in a bank when the bank goes bankrupt?"

PUPIL GAINS

THE circulation in the center's library has more than doubled since Pearl Harbor, and most of this increase is reflected in non-fiction withdrawals. These children are expanding vicariously their knowledge of other countries with such books as those listed at the end of this article.

The boys and girls of this lower vocational center are finding themselves more secure, more confident, and more useful citizens, at least partly as a result of a better understanding of the causes and implications of war conditions. They are attune to the part that they can play in reaching our ultimate victory more speedily, and to this end they pledge their "Code for the Junior Citizen":²

1. I will be kind in all my speech.
2. I will bear no spites or grudges.
3. I will not selfishly insist on having my own way.
4. I will tell the truth at all times for a lie is dishonest and may hurt someone else.
5. I will develop independence and wisdom to think for myself, to choose wisely, and to act for myself.
6. I will not be afraid of doing right when the crowd does wrong.
7. I will do my part, and encourage others to do their part, promptly, bravely, and honestly.

² Adapted by the boys and girls from a mimeographed safety bulletin distributed by the Safety Committee of District Three, in November, 1940.

8. In all my work with others I will be cheerful.

9. I will not do wrong in the hope of not being found out.

10. I will do promptly what I have promised to do, but I will never promise to do what is wrong.

11. I will follow the rules of personal hygiene to keep me strong and healthy in mind and in body.

12. I will form the habits of industry and alertness, for these habits will make me a good American.

SOME WARTIME BOOKS FOR POOR READERS

- Arason, Steingremue. *Smoky Bay*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. 190. \$2.00.
- Brown, Oril. *Youth Under Dictators*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 48. Paper, 32 cents.
- Cannon, Marian. *Children of the Fiery Mountain*. New York: Dutton, 1940. Pp. 96. \$2.00.
- Chase, Borden. *Sandhog*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 64. 96 cents.
- Cregan, Mafrin. *Rathina*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. 279. \$2.25.
- Davis, Mary H. and Chow-Leung. *Chinese Fables and Folk Stories*. New York: American Book, 1908. Pp. 214. 52 cents.
- Ershov, Petr P. *The Little Magic Horse*. Translated from the Russian by Tatiana Balkoff Drowne. Illustrated by Vera Bock. New York: Macmillan, 1942. \$2.50.
- Glover, Katherine. *America's Minerals*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 47. Paper, 32 cents. *Our American Forests*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 48. Paper, 32 cents.
- Hamsum, Marie. *A Norwegian Family*. Philadelphia: Lipincott, 1934. Pp. 342. \$2.00.
- Hawthorne, Hildegard. *Ox-Team Miracle*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1942. Pp. ix, 236. \$2.00.
- Hess, Fjeril. *Handkerchief Holiday*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. 247. \$2.00.
- Huntington, Ellsworth, Benson, C. Beverley, and McMurry, Frank M. *Living Geography*. Part I: How Countries Differ; Part II: Why Countries Differ. New York: Macmillan, 1932. 2 vols. Vol. I, \$1.20; vol. II, \$1.60.
- Janssen, Raymond. *Buried Sunlight*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 36. Paper, 28 cents.
- Lattimore, Eleanor F. *The Questions of Lifu*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1942. Pp. 104. \$2.00.
- Lent, Henry B. *Air Patrol*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. 170. \$2.00.
- Lide, Alice A. and Johanson, Margaret A. *Mystery of the Mahteb*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1942. Pp. 237. \$2.25.
- Maizlish, I. Leon. *Wonderful Wings*. Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1941. Pp. 35. Paper, 28 cents.
- Tunis, John R. *All-American*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1942. Pp. 245. \$2.00.
- Van Stockum, Hilda. *Andries*. New York: Viking, 1942. Pp. 192. \$2.00.
- Watson, Helen Orr. *Top Kick, U.S. Army Horse*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1942. Pp. 217. \$2.00.
- Wood, Esther. *Silver Widgeon*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1942. Pp. 227. \$2.00.

Types of Examinations: A Compromise

Howard White

ARTICLES which have appeared in *Social Education* indicate a reaction from the tendency to use objective examinations exclusively.¹ Refinements of the essay type therein illustrated are sufficiently important to justify a reappraisal of the respective merits of the two major types. The partisans of the essay type show a commendable moderation. They do not propose to do away with objective tests entirely. Many who use the latter will concede the defects of objective tests for some valid educational purposes. Obviously, the controversy does not call for an absolute either-or decision; but it may be that further inquiry will show how to extract the features of each type which are desirable and to construct a composite type with the better features of each.

The essay type encourages the examinee to express himself positively. He assimilates knowledge in the process of formulating his answer, if the project or question is properly phrased. He is under some compulsion to clarify and arrange ideas which he has acquired from sources inside and outside the classroom. On the other hand, the task of the examiner in fairly grading the product is difficult. Two persons are not likely to agree on the relative merits of twenty papers, or even on two. Leo Alilunas did not tell us which of the two students whose final examinations were quoted received the higher grade. This omission may be a matter of secondary impor-

tance, but most school systems still require some grading of individual work.

The objective type is easily and quickly graded; but it provides no record of the student's thought processes, of how his mind reached the conclusion that T or (c) was the correct answer. He gets no training in formulating and expressing his ideas. The deficiency has been apparent in many who enter college from high schools where objective tests have been the rule. At the outset, a large proportion of the freshmen in my classes cannot write a connected paragraph on the major topics in the field of government which are dealt with in the day's assignment. It takes weeks and even months in some cases for them to acquire facility in discussing the subject matter they are supposedly studying. Many of them make good scores when I give a regular objective examination.

TRUE OR FALSE, WITH EXPLANATION

FACILITY in discussing, orally or in writing, the subject matter they are studying is obviously not a result to be expected from the objective type. Nor, if reasonable time in class periods is given to oral discussion of points which students have difficulty in understanding, can lengthy essay-type questions be used frequently during a course. The composite method with which I have been experimenting is the true or false statement test, *with explanation*. If the statement is thought to be true, on the basis of the material assigned for study, the explanation should develop its significance. If it is false, the erroneous elements should be indicated, and the corrected statement explained as above. The student is also encouraged, if he shows that he knows how the statement appears in the assignment but disagrees with its truth or accuracy, to give his reasons for disagreement. Conciseness is insisted on, so that a relatively larger portion of the subject matter can be covered in a given time than is ordinarily possible with the essay type. The pages to which to refer for

¹ J. W. Wrightstone, "Are Essay Questions Obsolete?" I: 401-405, September, 1937; A. T. Volwiler, "Balance in Examination Questions," VII:25, January, 1943; and Leo Alilunas, "What do Essay Examinations Show?" VII:313-314, November, 1943.

A professor of government in Miami University continues the discussion of effective types of examinations, with particular reference to the merits of essay and "objective" questions.

checking answers, after the examination, may also be given.

This procedure may not secure all the advantages of the essay type; but it does eliminate some objections to the objective examination. It does provide opportunity for development of the student's skill in expression. Perhaps equally important, it gives him training in careful reading, which the essay type may not give. Whether he has perceived the meaning of a statement, or has overlooked significant words or phrases which qualify its meaning, will be readily shown in a few sentences of explanation, if not in designating it true or false. Moreover, having decided whether the statement is true or false, he is naturally impelled to justify his decision, presenting reasons to make it seem convincing.

By dividing credit between the two parts, true-false and explanation, the grade retains some of the scoring advantage of the objective test. By modifying the procedure, it is possible to get the full benefits of mechanical scoring. The class can be given a page or more of statements which are to be marked true or false. Depending on the time allotted, the students are also asked to explain a limited number of the statements, such as every fifth one, those which they mark false, ones specifically designated by number (which the teacher deems most suitable for explanation), or those which each student thinks require some amplification to make clear his reason for marking as he does, within a prescribed percentage of the total number of statements. With this work done on separate pages, the teacher has, in effect, two examination papers. The second can be used only as a check on the first, if desired; but consideration of another aspect of the examination problem will ordinarily lead the teacher to give credit to the explanations in computing the final score. Everyone who has worked with objective tests is aware of the extreme difficulty in wording them so as to convey the exact meaning intended. Often the brightest students see implications which were overlooked by the person who prepared the examination. It need not be a reflection on that

person to say that these implications are also overlooked by unimaginative, memorizing students. The keen-witted ones should not be penalized by counting their T or F as wrong, without giving them an opportunity to justify their answers.²

The range of discussion in the true-false with explanation is more definitely limited than in the ordinary essay type of answer and is therefore somewhat more easily graded on a comparative basis. While this method ordinarily requires close attention to assigned materials, and to points developed in class discussion when used for terminal examinations in a course, a fair-minded instructor is always willing to give credit for explanations which show a comprehension of the subject even when derived from extraneous sources. Most youth, however, do not bring to school a notable breadth of knowledge.

With due regard for the principles of child-centered education, youth need to learn to recognize and weigh evidence pertaining to a given subject before announcing their conclusions. If the materials for study are carefully selected with the students' needs in view, they deserve the students' close attention. Examinations which reveal the extent of comprehension resulting from study of a subject are essential for guiding the efforts of teacher and students, assuming that the knowledge to be gained from study contributes to useful living in our troubled world. The statement test, with explanations, seems to be a practical compromise between the objective and essay types of examination in that (1) it enables the students to express in their own words what they have learned and (2) it helps the teacher to appraise readily and with some accuracy the extent of the learning.

²I have found this modified procedure particularly helpful in government classes for the Navy V-12 personnel. One course attempts to acquaint them with essentials of American government, national, state, and local, in 16 weeks. Grades have to be reported each week. Obviously, if reports are to be reasonably accurate, based on a fair sample of the work being done, some reliance on short-answer, objective type of tests is imperative.

Teaching the Use of Parallels

Kenneth A. Fuller

ONE result of the needs arising out of the present war has been the concentration of attention on the importance of school instruction in map reading and interpretation. Leaders in the fields of geography and social studies, as well as military authorities, have stressed this vital need. Getting facts from parallels and meridians is one of the specific basic skills involved in the correct use of the map. Many of the senior high school pupils and a larger number in the junior high school either lack this particular ability or understand it but fail in its utilization. Perhaps teachers have neglected to regard skill in obtaining information from parallels and meridians as a practical instructional tool. In any case, this map-reading deficiency exists.

There is no unanimity of opinion as to where to begin the teaching of latitude and longitude, or as to the devices or techniques to be used. The writer believes that, in general, the pupil should be able to use latitude and longitude by the end of the eighth grade, that each should be taught separately, and latitude taught first.

Since a skill taught in isolation may be less effective than if acquired by incidental learning, the effective way to develop a skill is through the medium of significant subject matter. Basic facts relating to parallels and meridians should be presented to the pupil when they can be used in classroom work. Obviously, the development of this skill in the seventh and eighth grades will have little value if it is not used later.

BASIC CONCEPTS

IN THE first years of the junior high school we are little concerned with a detailed study of compass bearings, the determination of lati-

tude by instruments, or with the complexity of cartographic projections. We are interested rather in developing the pupil's ability to know the significance of the poles in determining direction, to understand the purpose of imaginary lines, to visualize parallels as imaginary lines running east and west and measuring distance north and south, to know that a degree of latitude equals approximately seventy miles, to understand why latitude lines are curved, and how to follow these lines to determine direction, to identify parallels and determine whether locations are in north and south latitude, and to understand the relation of latitude to climate, length of day, and seasons. There are many opportunities to practice these detailed skills with direct reference to the classwork.

Just as the textbook serves as an appropriate starting point in determining the pupil's ability to use a text, so should the first contact with a map in seventh grade provide an opportunity to diagnose difficulties. A set of map questions, locally constructed or in a standardized test such as the *Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills*, Test B,¹ if administered at this time, will identify weaknesses. However, a teacher-prepared set of questions may be more related to the work under consideration. Whether a class is studying a county, state, or continental map, the teacher can ask questions involving directions, distances, and locations as related to parallels and meridians. This serves to reveal specific aspects which need more individual attention.

Basic to reading directions on a map is the pupil's visualization of the earth as a sphere, requiring the use of a globe. It is necessary to impress him with this fact and illustrate that the earth turns on an axis, the ends of which are the north and south poles. If the pupil has been incorrectly introduced to maps and has the erroneous concept that north is "up" on a map and south is "down," show him a north polar map on which the top and bottom, and the

Map skills need to be systematically taught, believes the curriculum co-ordinator of the Lockport, New York, Public Schools, now on leave for military service. He offers suggestions for teaching parallels, and related geographic concepts, in the seventh or eighth grades.

¹ Iowa City: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, 1943. 5 cents.

right and left of the map are all south. Explain the correct meanings of the terms "up" and "down" and illustrate further that north is the area or place nearer the north pole and that south is the area or place nearer the south pole by allowing the pupil to view the globe from various angles. If the pupil has not been introduced to the globe and is not familiar with its use, the seventh-grade teacher should assume the responsibility of teaching him this information.

AFTER stressing the importance of the poles in determining directions, the teacher could then logically turn to the purpose of imaginary lines. A teacher explanation may suffice, but it will be more effective to have the pupil discover a reason for himself. One suggested procedure involves each pupil's drawing a circle to represent the usual view of the earth's shape. Then, the pupil is to mark an X corresponding to the location identified by an X on the teacher's blackboard circle. If the teacher marks a location on a circle on a paper on his desk, unseen by the pupils, his pupils will realize that they cannot mark the location only by such description. They found it was difficult enough by sight comparison. An explanation of how forest fires are located by the lookout's map lines and how ships in distress are found by the use of maps will tend to hold interest on the importance of imaginary lines.

The teacher should find other means of illustrating how lines drawn east and west will aid in location work in a general north and south direction from a particular parallel. In referring to a figure or word in the text, the instructor may say "It is so many lines from the middle or the top of the page," and relate this to the use of parallels north and south of the equator. Obviously, the pupil will have to know the meaning of the terms "parallel" and "equator."

Often a seventh or eighth-grade pupil is unable to read east and west direction along a curved latitude line. A simple device can be of aid in developing this concept. A piece of plain paper wrapped into a cone shape can have its point represent one of the poles and its mouth the world at the equator. If two places, A and B, are marked on a horizontal line, they will be directly east and west of each other. When the

cone is unfolded, locations A and B will not appear directly east and west of each other. Questions to clarify this point should include finding directions east and west on textbook maps. Map areas near the poles provide latitude lines definitely curved. It should be recognized by the teacher and the pupil that this cone device is for demonstration, and does not represent a sphere correctly.

The street plan is used by some teachers to show the relation between north and south latitudes and high and low latitudes. This plan refers to the first street north of main which runs east and west, and the second street south of main and so on. Avenues are diagrammed running north and south of the main avenue. These are related to parallel and meridian lines. A thermometer diagram will serve the same purpose. Compare the degrees above and below zero to the degrees of latitude north and south of the equator. The use of sectional maps in the text will provide practice in identifying areas north and south of the equator. Numbers of parallels which increase as they go south, show south latitude. Later, comparisons drawn of locations and areas in similar north and south latitudes are very significant.

INASMUCH as each degree of latitude equals approximately seventy miles, the pupil should be able to estimate straight line distances north and south. Prepared short exercises related to classwork will give him practice in estimating distances. A comparison of these estimates with the results gained by using the scale of miles should be made by the pupil. Finding the latitude of cities designated by the teacher and estimating the various distances by the degrees of latitude can be considered in game form. Class ability and the type of content material under consideration will determine the methods and extent of teaching latitude not only as a climate factor, but also as it is related to the varying length of the day and the succession of the seasons.

When mastery of latitude has been achieved through practice with globes and maps, through activities related to content, games to provide drill, and tests to diagnose the effectiveness of the learning, the class has a solid foundation for later study of longitude.

Notes and News

From Former-President King

The cancellation of the annual convention of the Council in 1943 prevented the holding of the regular election of officers as provided for in the Constitution of the Council. The absence of an election, however, did not seem to me to provide any reason for me to continue as president for more than one year, which is the length of the term as provided by the Constitution. Although it was a distinct honor and pleasure to be president of the National Council for one year, the time and energy required for the satisfactory discharge of the responsibilities of the office are needed for other work which it has seemed necessary for me to undertake. For these reasons I submitted, and the Board of Directors accepted, my resignation as president at the meeting of the Board in New York City on December 29, 1943.

The National Council, and social studies teachers in general, can confidently anticipate excellent leadership from the new president of the Council, Dr. I. James Quillen of Stanford University, who served as first vice-president during 1943 and has been active in Council affairs for several years. Miss Mary G. Kelty, of Washington, D.C., an outstanding leader in elementary social studies, automatically moved from the office of second vice-president to that of first vice-president. The position of second vice-president remains vacant, pending an election.

No change has been made in the membership of the Board of Directors for 1944. This is in accordance with a resolution passed at the 1942 annual business meeting of the Council in New York, providing for their continuance in office if "circumstances [should] prevent the holding of the regular annual election and business meeting."

In spite of a number of difficulties—the cancellation of the annual meeting, the change of executive secretaries, the loss of many members to the armed services and other wartime activities, the increase of prices, paper shortages, attacks upon the social studies in certain quarters, etc.—the Council has experienced a successful year of service to education. Among the most significant of these were: a strong program of

useful publications, extensive co-operation with government and private agencies in wartime activities, vigorous defense of the interests of a rich program of social education for youth, and collaboration with the American Historical Association and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association in the preparation of the report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges.¹ In the absence of regular meetings, the Council assisted in arranging for speaking and conference tours of several of the leaders in the field of social education. These activities together with the continuance of its regular program of services, have brought new prestige to the Council among educators and laymen alike.

These achievements have been made possible by the co-operation and loyalty of the entire membership of the Council and the suggestions the members submitted. In retiring as president, I wish to express special appreciation for the co-operation and sacrificial service of the Board of Directors, to all committee members, to Executive Secretaries Murra and Hartshorn, and to the office staff in Washington.

In its meeting in New York on December 28 and 29, the Board of Directors laid plans for greater services in the coming years. The future of the Council offers assurance of still greater achievements. The Council needs the support of every social studies teacher in the country, both in membership and ideas. Every social studies teacher needs the services of the Council. The schools of America have no other responsibility or opportunity greater than that provided by effective instruction in social studies. Civic competence in all its citizens is a paramount requirement for the successful operation of democracy. There can be no greater challenge than that provided by the necessity for building understanding and skills in economic, social, political, and international affairs. Survival and improvement of our way of life depend upon a firm foundation in the social studies—history, geography, economics, sociology, civics, psychology, and their various combinations. A greater National Council for the Social Studies

¹ *American History in Schools and Colleges*. Published January, 1944, by the Macmillan Company.

can assist greatly in the achievement of these goals.

ALLEN Y. KING

NCSS-MVHA Meeting

The National Council for the Social Studies and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association will hold two joint sessions in St. Louis, Missouri, at the annual meeting of the MVHA, April 20-22. On Friday evening, April 21, the NCSS and the MVHA will meet jointly for a presentation and discussion of the report of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges. The second joint session will be held Saturday morning, April 22, at the Teachers' Section meeting. Plans for this meeting are not yet complete, but full particulars will appear in *Social Education* for April. All teachers who can possibly attend this meeting are urged to do so.

NCSS Annual Meeting for 1944

The National Council for the Social Studies has accepted the invitation of the Chicago Council for the Social Studies to hold its 1944 Annual Meeting in Chicago, November 23-25. Mary G. Kely, 3512 Rittenhouse Street, N. W., Washington, is the National Council Program Chairman. Serving with her on the Program Committee for the Annual Meeting are: Burr Phillips, University of Wisconsin; Elsie Beck, Detroit Public Schools; Edwin Reeder, University of Illinois; Meribah Clark, Terre Haute (Indiana) State Teachers College; and William Van Til, Ohio State University. Any regional, state, or local council, or any individual having suggestions for topics or speakers is urged to send them as soon as possible to the chairman. (M. G. K.)

From the Publications Committee

The topics for the National Council for the Social Studies yearbook for 1944 and 1945 have been selected. But the Publications Committee is still seeking additional suggestions for subsequent topics. Many of the suggestions already received have been excellent, but we would like as wide a representation of the membership as possible. Certainly it is not too soon, for example, to begin planning the post-war curriculum, especially for the returned service personnel, war workers, and government employees who may want to continue their formal education after the war.

What form should the post-war social studies curriculum take?

Are present courses adequate to meet the need?

If we should devote more attention to general and part-time education, should we devise new courses and include new content?

How can we best integrate formal education with the training and experiences these individuals may have had while in some war-related activity?

We want to hear from you! This is a problem about which all teachers must have been thinking, and about which they must have some ideas, convictions, or suggestions. Let us know what you want, and we will do our best to provide materials helpful to you. Send in your suggestions about this or any other yearbook topic which you would like to have considered.

H. T. MORSE, Chairman

Committee on Publications, NCSS.
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Illinois Council

The Illinois Council for the Social Studies held a regional meeting at Decatur on February 26 on the theme of "The Contributions of the Social Studies to General Education." In the morning following the business meeting there were panel discussions on "Social Studies Teachers and Problems of Juvenile Delinquency," and "What Next in the Social Studies." The luncheon speaker, R. W. Ogan, spoke on "Social Studies in the Post-War World." The afternoon was devoted to sectional meetings; one dealing with the elementary school on the topic, "How May Social Studies Best Meet the Needs of Elementary Children," and another on the secondary-school level on the topic, "The Place of Social Studies in General Education." This was followed by meetings of the committees of the Illinois Council.

A second regional meeting will be held in Chicago March 25. These two regional meetings will take the place of the usual state-wide meeting of the Council.

The Councilor, official publication of the Illinois Council, is one of the best state-council publications. Its January, 1944, issue contains a number of helpful articles describing some of the outstanding work in schools of the state.

Middle States Council

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its spring meeting, March 24-25, at Logan Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. This meeting will continue the discussions begun at the December meeting in

New York (see *Social Education*, November). Drafts of various proposals made at that meeting for courses of study in American and World history have been mimeographed and circulated to members. Others may secure copies of this skeleton draft for 10 cents from Mrs. J. P. Nichols, 438 Riverview Road, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania. This material will furnish the basis for discussion at the Philadelphia meeting. The newly organized elementary-school section will also continue its discussions begun at the New York meeting on co-operative curriculum building.

The results of all these deliberations will be embodied in the 1944 volume of the *Proceedings* of the Middle States Council which is sent free to members of that Council.

The meeting is being held during Schoolmen's Week in Philadelphia, and the social studies workshop section of this group will merge with the Middle States meeting, being held in collaboration with the National Council and the Social Studies Section, Southeastern District of the Pennsylvania State Education Association. All interested teachers are cordially invited to attend.

(J. P. N.)

New England Association

The New England Association of Social Studies Teachers is engaged in a co-operative project with Boston University called "The New England Junior Town Meeting of the Air." The half-hour radio program is broadcast over WBZ and is conducted in a manner similar to "Town Hall," and "America's Town Meeting of the Air." Each program has four speakers from four different high schools who speak briefly on the day's topic, and the last half of the program is a question period in which high school members of the audience ask questions and the speakers reply extemporaneously. The program, which began in January, is organized by W. Linwood Chase who appears as moderator each week. Topics for February were: "Should the Eighteen Year Olds be Allowed to Vote?" "Is America Living Up to Lincoln's Ideals of Democracy?" "What Should We Do with Germany at the Peace Table?" "Should We Have Compulsory Military Training in Post-War America?" Topics scheduled for March broadcasts are: "Should the Government Ban Strikes for the Duration?" "How Can Prejudice and Intolerance Be Controlled and Eliminated?" "Is the Pure Form of Town Meeting the Most Effective Form of Local Government?"

(W. L. C.)

Oklahoma Council

The Oklahoma State Council of Teachers of Social Studies met as a part of the Oklahoma Education Association on February 17 and 18 at Oklahoma City. Ben Wood of Columbia University spoke at the Thursday session on "Air Age Geography." On Friday a luncheon meeting was addressed by Cortez A. M. Ewing, Director of the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Oklahoma University, on the topic, "Planning the Peace." An open forum followed on "Wartime Problems of Teaching the Social Studies," led by F. A. Balyeat, Professor of Education, University of Oklahoma.

(M. A. S.)

American History Meetings

Howard E. Wilson and Edgar B. Wesley appeared together at a meeting in Los Angeles on February 9, 1944, to discuss the report of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges. Dr. Wesley will meet with other groups of educators at the University of Houston, Texas, on March 20, and at Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, on March 23. At these meetings Dr. Wesley will talk on "The Case for Basic Essentials in American History." These meetings were arranged and sponsored by the National Council through the office of its Executive Secretary.

Peacetime Problems

America and the Future is the title of a 28-page pamphlet based on studies undertaken by a committee of *Time*, *Life* and *Fortune* editors and written by the chairman, John K. Jessup. This committee studied peacetime problems which will confront the United States at home and abroad. The majority conclusions and observations of the committee are contained in this pamphlet. There are two major sections; the first dealing with the peacetime problems of our domestic economy, and the second dealing with our future foreign policy. It is a stimulating and valuable pamphlet. Secondary-school teachers will find this pamphlet very helpful in formulating their thinking on these complex problems. Copies are available in limited quantity on request from Time, Inc., Rockefeller Center, New York.

Intercultural Education

Units on the contributions to American life made by Negroes in science, health, art, and literature have recently been prepared by Madeline R. Morgan and Bessie King of Chicago

Public Schools. Considerable research and time went into the preparation of these units which have been tried out and are now being used extensively in the Chicago schools. They are designed to teach the white youth to appreciate Negro achievements and to teach the Negro youth to respect himself and to be proud of his people. The units of study are divided into three groups: Primary, Grades I-III; Intermediate, Grades IV-VI; and Upper Grades, VII-VIII. The complete set of units (three pamphlets) may be obtained for \$1 from the Board of Education of Chicago, Bureau of Curriculum, Chicago.

Out of the Many—One is a helpful 14-page pamphlet on intercultural education. It contains useful pictorial material, suggestions of what can be done in this field, and tells of the work of the Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York, from whom copies of this pamphlet may be obtained, upon request.

Elementary Social Studies

Social Studies for Children, Bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington. 32 pages, 35 cents) will especially interest teachers of Grades I-IV. It deals with such topics as what the social studies are, how social development takes place, what are the concepts toward which social development should be directed, and what are some criteria for social development. A major portion of the bulletin is devoted to a discussion and presentation of experiences which can be provided for children which will lead towards social maturity.

Latin America

Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials, Part I, is a pamphlet which contains the first four chapters of the report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects, Howard E. Wilson, Director. Chapter I describes the background and work done in this field prior to the study. Chapter II deals with the scope and method of the survey. Chapter III contains sixteen general conclusions which emerge from the specific materials in the various subject matter areas dealt with in the sixteen chapters of Part II of this committee's report. These conclusions furnish the basis for Chapter IV which contains specific recommendations as desirable next steps in the development of adequate teaching aids in the field of inter-American relations. The four chap-

ters published separately as Part I are of unusual significance because they include these conclusions and recommendations which are based on the extensive research findings of the specialists whose reports are embodied in Part II.

Latin America in School and College Teaching Material, Part I (42 pages) is now available in pamphlet form and may be purchased for 25 cents from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington. The entire report will be published in book form.

Far Eastern Survey

The fortnightly issues of the *Far Eastern Survey* continue to be of great value to teachers who include attention to the Far East in their current-events classes. Fall and winter issues include articles on "China's Political Development" and "Australia's Empty Spaces" (October 6); "Foreign Enterprise in Postwar China" and "How Australia Pays for the War" (November 3); "Political Currents in New Zealand" and "Moscow Cornerstone" (November 17); "Australia and Lend-Lease" and "The Pao-Chia System in China" (December 8); "The Future of Southeast Asia" and "A Pacific Charter" (December 22); "Food Crisis in India" and "India and Us" (January 12); "Markets for Far Eastern Industries" (January 26); "Manpower in Australia" and "'Free' French Indo-China" (February 9). Single copies cost 25 cents; annual subscription, \$5.00. Published by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations, Inc., 1 East 54th Street, New York.

Foreign Policy Reports

The semi-monthly *Foreign Policy Reports* provide timely treatment of war and post-war problems in international relations. Recent issues include "Post-War Programs of Europe's Underground," by Winifred N. Hadsel (November 15); "The Dominions Look to the Future," by Gwendolen M. Carter (December 1); "Britain's Postwar Trade and World Economy," by Howard P. Whidden, Jr. (December 15); "UNRRA—a Step Toward Reconstruction," by Vera Micheles Dean (January 1); "Foreign Policy of the Vatican," by Sherman S. Hayden (January 15); "Independence for Colonial Asia—*The Cost to the Western World*," by Lawrence K. Rosinger (February 1). Single copies cost 25 cents; annual subscription, \$5.00. Address the Association at 22 East 38th Street, New York.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Post-War Planning

The Commission to Study the Organization of Peace (8 West 40th Street, New York) has recently concluded a four-year study of permanent international organization to maintain peace and safeguard human rights. Its proposals are contained in its *Fourth Report*, published in the form of three pamphlets, with a fourth to follow later. In *Fundamentals of the International Organization*, the major purposes of such an organization are considered as three-fold: security, welfare, and justice. To provide the means of reaching these ends, the Commission lists and briefly explains eleven fundamentals which a post-war international organization should include. The second pamphlet, *Security and World Organization*, proposes as the best means for collective security an international air police force. In general, it is proposed that such a force be created by cession of units from the air squadrons of each of the United Nations, and that it operate under the authority of the world council which would be dominated by the same nations. It would be instantly available to punish any act which might be considered by the council to threaten international peace. *The Economic Organization of Welfare* proposes several permanent international economic bodies, based in part on existing agencies of the League of Nations, such as the International Labor Organization. The conclusions are well developed and reasonable, though they may be criticized by extremists in economic thought as too mild. Single copies of these important pamphlets may be obtained free from the Commission.

The same organization issues a *Bulletin* at intervals of one or two months; the issue for October-November, 1943, is entitled *Proposals for Post-War Monetary Stabilization*. It contains the texts of three plans for dealing with international monetary problems: one by experts of the British Treasury, one by a group of Canadian experts, and one, in both preliminary and revised forms, by officials of the U. S. Treasury Department. Though they are not official in any sense, it is likely that whatever scheme

for international monetary control is eventually adopted, it will be closely related to these plans. Copies of the *Bulletin* may be purchased from the Commission for 20 cents.

The National Planning Association (800 Twenty-First Street, N. W., Washington) is issuing as items in its series of *Planning Pamphlets* a number of excellent studies of the post-war outlook for American agriculture. One of these, *World Needs for U. S. Food and Fiber*, was reviewed previously. Two more pamphlets in this field have now been issued: *Farm People and the Land After the War*, by Murray R. Benedict, of the University of California, and *Food for Europe After Victory*, prepared by a sub-committee of the National Planning Association (25 cents each). The first of these analyzes the basic difficulties that exist in the agricultural pattern of this country, such as the problems of farm tenancy and labor supply. The analysis brings out the influence of war conditions on these permanent problems, and attempts to predict what the return of peacetime conditions will mean to the farm population. *Food for Europe After Victory* discusses a post-war problem which will be immediate and urgent, and which must be dealt with skillfully unless disaster is to follow. To quote from the pamphlet, "The biggest food problem Europe will face after the defeat of Germany will not be the production of food but its distribution."

Are You Ready for World War III? by Waverley Root (Committee for a Democratic Foreign Policy, 565 Fifth Avenue, New York. 5 cents) is a forceful plea for popular opposition to any form of appeasement of diplomatic expediency. In particular it urges support for the De Gaulists, and a united front against any friendly gestures to Franco, Victor Emmanuel and Badoglio, the German industrialists, or any other element in Europe whose past record shows them to have been inimical to democratic ideals and interests.

Conscription, by Norman Thomas (Post War World Council, 112 East 19th Street, New York. 10 cents) is a brief but strong plea against the retention of military conscription as a national

policy after the war. Mr. Thomas musters all the arguments against conscription, and in particular inveighs against conscription as a remedy for industrial unemployment.

Current Issues

The problems of race relationships never cease to be of vital importance in this country, and there is a steady output of material bearing on them. The Bureau for Intercultural Education (221 West 57th Street, New York) devotes itself to this subject and publishes a wide variety of items of general interest. A recent leaflet entitled *Intercultural Education Literature* (free) provides a handy list of pamphlets dealing with racial and ethnic matters. Its little periodical, *Intercultural Education News*, also free, is likewise particularly useful for its reviews of publications in the field.

A timely pamphlet on the question of racial tension is *Why Race Riots? Lessons from Detroit*, by Earl Brown (Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. 10 cents). Mr. Brown, of *Life's* editorial staff, writes vividly of the growth of racial intolerance in Detroit, and of the terrible events of June 20 and 21, 1943. He explains in brief but outspoken terms those factors which make Detroit particularly susceptible to race disturbances: the large Negro, foreign, and Southern white population; the unusual number of fanatical agitators; the extremely rapid growth of the city with its attendant housing shortage; labor troubles; and political corruption. He bluntly pins the blame for the riots on those groups which he thinks could have prevented trouble, and suggests measures which other communities can take to forestall similar disasters.

A rather technical discussion of a subject important to business men is *Business Reserves in Present Tax Law*, by E. Crary Brown and J. Keith Butters (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington. 25 cents). Those provisions of the Revenue Act of 1942 dealing with business reserves are the subject of the authors' analysis and criticism.

Many teachers who are not yet acquainted with *Education for Victory*, will undoubtedly find many useful and interesting items in its pages. This publication is a biweekly periodical issued by the U. S. Office of Education. (Order from Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. \$1.00 per year.) It contains news of general interest to teachers, articles and information on military life which

will interest boys and girls, news of Victory Corps activities, and information on government policies which affect the schools. Particularly helpful are the pages devoted to the many publications of government agencies of interest to educators.

Among several pamphlets recently issued by the Office of Civilian Defense which may be useful in the schoolroom are *The Neighborhood in Action* (10 cents); *Recreation in War Time* (free); *The United States Junior Citizens Service Corps* (5 cents); and *Health Service in War Time* (free). They may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents or the U. S. Office of Civilian Defense.

Miscellaneous

The Children's Bureau has issued two pamphlets on a currently vital problem: *Controlling Juvenile Delinquency, A Community Program*; and *Understanding Juvenile Delinquency* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. L5.20:301 and L5.20:300 respectively. 10 cents each).

An interesting first-hand picture of England today is provided in *Wartime Britain: Report on Recent Visit of Stephen Duggan, Director, Institute of International Education* (Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York. Free). Mr. Duggan reports on the life of the people, industrial conditions, and most particularly, on education in Great Britain. The latter section is of special interest.

The Thomas Jefferson Bicentennial Commission has issued a very attractive little pamphlet on the life of Jefferson. It is illustrated with photographs of historical places and paintings and in its 35 pages gives an excellent summary of the career and importance of our third President. It should be an admirable addition to a classroom library. The National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington) will supply copies or advise how they may be obtained.

Latin America and the World Struggle for Freedom, by Ryland W. Crary (Ginn & Co., New York. 68 cents) is the ninth unit study in American problems to appear under the sponsorship of the Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Like its predecessors, it is exceedingly attractive in format and presentation, and is well adapted for use in senior high schools. The illustrations and graphic materials are clear and well chosen, and the text is very readable. Appendices provide lists of study aids and suggestions for class activities.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

A mimeographed bulletin which provides needed information on the sources of motion pictures that illustrate democratic principles is "Films for the Teaching of Democracy." Copies are 25 cents each from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington.

Recently in his courses in American history the writer used the 44-minute, sound, Kodachrome film *Eighteenth Century Life in Williamsburg, Virginia*. This picture is distributed free by Informational Films Division, Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street, Rochester, New York. It is without question the best film on colonial life available for teaching purposes. Essentially a record of a day in the lives of a few typical Williamsburg colonists, this film applies the documentary technique to the America of two centuries ago. Three aspects of colonial life are shown: home life, eighteenth-century cabinet making, and community life. It is accompanied by a teachers' guide which contains pertinent information on the film and its use.

The Victory Edition Catalog of the Institutional Cinema Service, 1560 Broadway, New York, contains a large number of films of interest to social studies teachers. A copy will be sent upon request.

The American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, has just completed a preliminary study of the need for new educational motion pictures. The findings in the field of history show great gaps in about all periods and at all levels. The greatest need seems to be in the fields of ancient and medieval history, but the fields of modern European and American history also indicate pressing needs. Best films seem to be available in the area of modern problems. If you have felt the lack of films in any specific area write to Miss Helen Hardt Seaton at the above address. Your evidence will prove valuable to the success of this project.

The latest catalog from Visual Instruction Section, Publicity Division, General Electric Co., Schenectady, New York, is now ready for distribu-

tion. The free films distributed by this company are of a high order, and many fit well into the social studies course.

The new *Educational Film Catalog* for 1944 is now available from H. W. Wilson Co., 950-72 University Avenue, New York. It lists practically every worth-while educational film on the market, gives a description of their contents, and tells where they may be rented. Subscription for 1944, including the revised edition and two supplements, costs \$2.00. It's a "must" for teachers who use films.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Bailey Film Service, 1651 Cosmo Street, Hollywood, California.

Men of Fire. 1 reel, sound; rental, \$1.00. Training and work of firemen.

Rio de Janeiro. 1 reel, sound; rental, \$1.00. Travel picture showing the capital of Brazil.

Romance of India. 1 reel, sound; rental, \$1.00. An overview of Indian life and land.

Bell and Howell Co., 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

The Horse In North America. 2 reels, sound, color; rental, apply. Natural history of the horse and his introduction into this continent.

Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York.

The Dutch Tradition. 3 reels, sound; service charge, \$2.50. A documentary film on the people of Holland and the Dutch Indies. An Office of War Information film.

Siege of Leningrad. 6 reels (62 minutes), sound; rental, \$15.00 per day. A feature-length film showing how 3,000,000 Leningrad citizens smashed the Nazi ring of steel.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Desert Victory. 5 reels, sound; rental, apply. An outstanding war film—one of the ten best films of 1943—tracing in realistic fashion the struggle for Africa.

E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Inc., Motion Picture Bureau, Wilmington, Delaware.

Soldiers of the Soil. 4 reels, sound; free. The part that the farmer and agriculture play in the war effort.

Frith Films, P.O. Box 565, Hollywood, California.

Farming Takes Skill. 1 reel, sound, color; rental, apply. Farming treated as a business. The varied skills and routines are well illustrated.

Pictorial Films, RKO Building, New York.

Army Chaplain. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. Training and service of chaplains.

Boomtown, D.C. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. Washington in wartime.

Private Smith of the U.S.A. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. What happens to the average citizen as he sheds his "civies" for khaki.

Women at Arms. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. The work women are doing in this war.

Radio Notes

The concluding broadcasts in the "Education For Freedom" series will be broadcast in March over the Mutual network on Monday nights from 10:15 to 10:30, EWT. This 13-week series, featuring famous educators and writers, was launched in December, 1943. Its object is to bring before the public a frank consideration of educational problems.

Quite a few teachers have reported enthusiastically concerning "Abe Lincoln's Story," a Mutual program heard on Sundays at 4:30 P.M., EWT. The story of Lincoln is here presented in a simple, straightforward fashion.

Write to the Federal Radio Education Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Office, Washington, for a copy of the folder "What the FREC Offers You," which contains a complete list of services and printed publications for teachers utilizing radio.

"Here's to Youth" is a series of dramatizations of problems which face our young people. Each Saturday from 1:00 to 1:30 P.M., EWT, this program stresses the positive, constructive aspects of the tasks which youth organizations can perform. Topics for March include "Help Wanted," "Bride of Mars," "Boomtown," and "Johnny Comes Home."

A new "Talks" program has been added by CBS. Each Sunday from 1:45 to 2:00 P.M., EWT, representatives of civic, fraternal, political, and philanthropic organizations bring phases of their programs before the listening public. Other "Talks" programs heard over CBS are "Congress Speaks," Tuesday 10:45 to 11:00 P.M., EWT, and "Saturday Night Talks," 10:45 to 11:00 P.M.,

The 1943-1944 Radio Calendar of the American Association of School Administrators will be sent to teachers at no cost from National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. Many programs dealing with the war are listed.

Two new catalogs, *Transcriptions for Victory* and *Scripts for Victory*, are available on request from the Educational Script and Transcription Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington. Eight scripts originally broadcast over "Cavalcade of America," and five "Victory Corps in Action" scripts are now available for school programs.

Rare Coins in the History Class

Few history teachers have at their disposal a collection of rare coins which they can use to illustrate economic and social history. All teachers, including the few numismatists with their own coin collections, will find the Historical Coining Society "coin stamps" a valuable aid in teaching the meaning and history of money. These are facsimiles of many famous coins. They have the color, size, and details of the originals and are gummed for pasting in albums. The 12-sheet "March of Money" album and 48 coin stamps cost \$1.20 from Historical Coining Society, 3659 Clay Street, San Francisco.

Recordings on China

In co-operation with the East and West Association, the Script and Transcription Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington is making available seven recorded programs on the people of China. Written by Pearl Buck, Lin Mousheng, and other authorities on China, these recordings bring an authentic verbal picture to the classroom. The records are distributed on a free-loan basis. All are recorded at 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ r.p.m. and can be played only on slow-speed record players. The titles are "China Speaks to America," "Life in China Today," "40 Centuries of Chinese History," "What Confucius Really Said," "Chinese Humor," "China's Contribution to the West," and "The Fighting Chinese."

Filmstrips

Several months ago this department announced the "Coronet Picture Stories," a series of filmstrips based on pictures appearing in *Coronet* magazine. In co-operation with the Society for Visual Education, Dept. 1SO, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago, *Coronet* has made these filmstrips available for the cost of postage and handling only; \$2.00 for the series of eight filmstrips. Thus far five filmstrips have been made available: "Through the Periscope," a story of submarine warfare; "China Fights Back," by Madame Chiang Kai-shek; "Queens Never Die," the story of the S.S. *Normandie*; "Anchors Aweigh," the United States Navy in color; and "A World and Two Wars," the First and Second World War in contrast. The writer has used each filmstrip with college students and in classes on the elementary level. He has received reports on their usefulness in the secondary schools. Like any series, individual issues are often unsuitable

for use in the local course of study. "Through the Periscope" will be enthusiastically received in a unit on the war. "Queens Never Die," although interesting in itself, seems to have little application for the school curriculum. "China Fights Back" is well suited to work in geography or history. "Anchors Aweigh" is disappointing. Its pictures are poorly selected, are not arranged in any particular order, and are not suited for teaching purposes. As though to compensate for this poor issue, the latest film-strip, "A World and Two Wars," is excellent. Its pictures alternately present phases of this war and comparable aspects of the First World War. This is one of the finest aids available for studying the contrast between the World Wars.

Free Materials

A booklet containing a number of beautifully colored paintings of modern war planes may be had free from General Electric Company, Schenectady, New York. Ask for "They're Turbo-supercharged."

A colored wall chart, 35x23 inches in size, entitled "How du Pont Rayon is Made" is free from Rayon Division, E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Empire State Building, New York. Yarn samples are attached to the poster. Booklets for students entitled "Facts about Fabrics" and "Rayon Today" are also sent free.

The Rit Products Corporation, 1401 West Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, will send interested teachers a free booklet entitled "How to Make Costumes for School Plays and Pageants." Among the costumes illustrated and described are: medieval knight, Indian, Pilgrims, frontiersman, and Norseman.

A calendar which will interest classes studying history is "The World Calendar," free from World Calendar Association, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York.

"Lumbering" is the latest in the series of visual studies of American industries, for sixth and seventh grades, distributed free by local Coca Cola Bottling Companies. To date five industries have been covered in this series: steel, oil, electricity, transportation, and lumbering. Units on movies, cotton, and glass are now in production. Each unit consists of four colored posters, a teacher's manual, thirty-five pupil workbooks, and colored cutouts for the workbooks.

From the American Society for the Control of Cancer, 350 Madison Avenue, New York, may be obtained posters and charts which will be found valuable in teaching community responsi-

bility for public-health problems.

A large, four-color "Dated Events" map of the Pacific theater of operations is obtainable free from Young America Books, 32 East 57th Street, New York. This map spots the principal points of interest in this area and briefly notes the date on which it was captured by the Japanese or taken by the Allies. An order of ten or more of the maps may be had at 15 cents each.

Over a year ago the Informational Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, issued a loan packet on "Aviation Education." This packet met with an enthusiastic response on the part of teachers hard pressed for material to answer the challenge of the air age. It has recently been revised and now includes many charts, maps, pictures, and booklets of interest to students. Teachers may borrow packets for two-week periods.

Helpful Articles

Aigner, Lucien. "The Enrichment of the Curriculum Through Visual Education," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI: 12-13, 60, February, 1944. A report of a visual-education program at the Hunter College Elementary school. Especially helpful to those who must operate on a limited budget.

Hirshberg, Bernard. "School Dramatics," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI: 14, 64, February, 1944. Practical suggestions for making school plays successful.

Lowdermilk, R. R. "Teaching With Transcriptions," *Journal of the Association For Education by Radio*, III: 1, 9, January, 1944. Principal steps in the use of the transcription are given as teacher preparation, student preparation, exposure, assimilation, and application.

Molyneux, Mary Louise. "Audio-Visual Aids—A Survey," *Education Screen*, XXIII: 11-15, January, 1944. A visit to twelve school systems is summarized in terms of current practices in the utilization of audio-visual aids.

Roberts, Alvin B. "Audio-Visual Aids in the Schools of Tomorrow," *Educational Screen*, XXIII: 9-10, 18, January, 1944. Brief résumé of the possibilities, problems, and dangers that will confront the post-war visual field.

Rushing, Frances. "Organizing School Excursions," *The Instructor*, LIII: 29, February, 1944. Suggestions for organizing and conducting school excursions. Good discussion of the social values which grow out of such trips.

"Two Billion People," *Fortune*, XXIX: 157-163, February, 1944. A portfolio showing the population of the world, now and in 1970. Graphs show the pattern of man's growth, maps show the countries of the world as circles equated to show relative populations.

"Visual Aids for War Training, a Step Forward in Education," *Education for Victory*, II: 1-2, January 20, 1944. Describes the general nature, intent, and purposes of the 198 war-training films and filmstrips now available for technical training.

Williams, Myvanwy. "Shall We Put on a Play?" *Education*, LIV: 301-306, January, 1944. A defense of school dramatics which will interest teachers who wish to consider the educational possibilities of formal dramatics.

Book Reviews

ROMANTICISM AND THE MODERN EGO. By Jacques Barzun. Boston: Little, Brown, 1943. Pp. viii, 359. \$2.75.

This is an extraordinary book. It is scholarly and superficial, profound and sophistical, wise and absurd, and, if Mr. Barzun will permit me, romanticist and classicist. The only thing that it is not is dull.

Mr. Barzun's thesis is straightforward enough: romanticism has meant all things to all men. Because of the confusion in definition, people have attributed to historical romanticism evil things for which it is not to blame. Worst of these false attributions is the belief that somehow romanticism led to fascism. Actually, Mr. Barzun contends, historical romanticism was an attempt to solve the problems brought about by the general dissolution during the eighteenth century. It smashed classical correctness, opening fresh possibilities for moral enthusiasm and individual talent. Only in the hands of "realist" minded moderns was it falsified into an "affectation of toughness," a "collegiate inventiveness," a pretty preciosity, etc. Historical romanticism is the negation of fascism, and just what a fascist-wrecked world needs.

In this book Mr. Barzun continues, with his usual erudition, penetration, and artistry, to place his own re-evaluation upon the culture of the nineteenth century. His interpretation is certainly a healthy and suggestive corrective to the historiography which has assumed that romantic is a synonym for formless or irrational or reactionary. Yet reading *Romanticism and the Modern Ego* leaves one with the same uncomfortable feeling that an over-clever movie does. It happens that neatly only in Hollywood, and it may happen that neatly only in Mr. Barzun's book. His romanticism is too heroic and his classicism is too villainous to be really convincing. Statements flipped off and unelaborated—such as that *Faust* is the Bible of romanticism and *Madame Bovary* is the Bible of realism—do not stand up under the second thought. Some of Mr. Barzun's arguments sound better than they are. Take, for example, his statement, "If we are committed to the view that Fascism is a new expression of historic romanticism, we must be able to show that most of the great men who lived a hundred

and twenty-five years ago were actual or potential Fascists" (p. 9). Few competent critics, however, have maintained that Fascism was "a new expression of historic romanticism." They have maintained that historic romanticism encouraged the growth of a fascist ideology, and to show that one does not have to show that Carlyle and Fichte were actual or potential fascists. Does Mr. Barzun really believe that it is just as easy to make connections between historical romanticism and, say, communism, as it is to make connections between historic romanticism and fascism?

Perhaps the nub of the difficulty lies in the fact that Mr. Barzun has brilliantly failed to do what many predecessors had also failed to do—to straight-jacket conceptions that simply will not remain straight-jacketed. Perhaps there is no such thing as one historic romanticism and one historic classicism. Perhaps in the "modern ego" there is both a romanticist and a classicist strand, as Mr. Barzun defines the words, even as some of the best parts of his book reveal now the "generalizing and abstracting" of the classicist, now the "concreteness and diversity" of the romanticist.

ERIC F. GOLDMAN

Princeton University

THE REVOLUTIONARY GENERATION, 1763-1790. By Evarts Boutell Greene. (A History of American Life, ed. by A. M. Schlesinger and D. R. Fox, vol. IV.) New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. xvii, 487. \$4.00.

To the close student of warfare it should be clear that the clash of arms is often preceded by rearrangements in group relationships, and is nearly always accompanied by changes in the social structure of the warring peoples. Our own history offers testimony in support of this view and no period more strikingly so than the Revolutionary era. "The Old World in the New" (chap. I) is the setting of European culture in this transatlantic world. But this was a period of exceedingly rapid change within the colonies and also between them and the mother country, so that an "Emerging Americanism" (chap. VIII) came into conflict with an outmoded imperial-

ism. "A social outlook increasingly differentiated" from that of the homeland had much to do with the eventual break.

With "The Parting of the Ways" (chap. IX) the volume reaches the halfway mark, and in his customary careful manner, Professor Greene gives us an excellent analysis of the group divisions in the Revolutionary crisis. In his kindly, considerate way he makes short shrift of glib generalizations which sometimes pass as keys to an easy understanding of these difficult years. In the final choice, apparently "a majority of the more substantial business men did not favor separation from the empire." The radical leadership which agitated for separation, found much of its mass support in the urban working classes. Although the Revolution did help "to transfer power from provincial aristocracies to an economic middle class," we are reminded that it is easy to exaggerate this shift, for important representative bodies continued to include in their membership a considerable proportion of the wealthy.

The second half of this scholarly volume is devoted to the impact of the war on civilian life and the readjustments that were made in American economy and republican culture. Conservatives, including former Loyalists, managed to re-establish themselves in positions of importance after the war, but confiscated estates were not restored. This "critical period" was, contrary to some accepted opinions, one of constructive economic activity, as well as an era of positive achievement in the creation of a stable social order. As told in this narrative the adoption of the Constitution flows more logically from the previous experience of the American people than some other interpretations have led us to believe. Exuberant in their self-conscious independence and bound up more and more with the cultivation of inland territories, it is nevertheless true that leading citizens of the young republic "still lived in an Atlantic, rather than a strictly American, world." The growing Americanism of that world will, undoubtedly, be a main theme of the forthcoming volume in this series, which will then be completed. In passing it is worth remarking that Professor Greene is the only contributor to both the American Nation series and *A History of American Life*, and is thus an active link between two generations of historical scholars. A volume by one of the earlier group, Edward Channing, (vol. 3 in his *History of the United States*) is the only work of comparable significance with the book under review, but their materials and emphases are, in general, very different.

There is probably no more erudite student of this period in America, and we are indeed fortunate in having the considered judgments of Professor Greene on the controversial problems historians have debated these many years. The virtues of objective historical scholarship have always shown brightly in his writing, and the attentive reader can find in summary sentences and paragraphs illuminating generalizations which can only have been the result of careful weighing of evidence. The evidence reveals a generation not only revolutionary in its political outlook, but in its experimentation along different social and cultural paths. The indebtedness of the new to the old world is duly noted but the differences are also observed, and in these differences one can discern the pattern of American life as distinguished from that of Europe. Some day a book of similar title will embrace both the European and the American revolutionary generations and show the intimate relationships between the two, and when it is written Professor Greene's work will play an important part in its accomplishment. But the generation that made the American Revolution has not had a more knowing or a more understanding historian to chronicle its hopes and failures and its remarkable achievements.

MICHAEL KRAUS

City College, New York

THE WAKE OF THE PRAIRIE SCHOONER. By Irene D. Paden. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. xix, 514. \$3.00.

This study of the routes to the Far West is the by-product of a geographer's millennium. For more than a decade Dr. and Mrs. Paden studied thousands of old letters, diaries, journals, and maps of the overland roads. Then during most of nine summer vacations they worked at the task of locating and following the various routes and cutoffs of the California-Oregon trail. Dr. Paden was interested only in cartography. To Mrs. Paden, photographer and chronicler of the expedition, fell the task of writing this book.

The result is a detailed description of the trails and the people who travelled them, together with an account of how Dr. and Mrs. Paden, occasionally accompanied by local historians, struggled with the problems of locating landmarks that were considered irrevocably lost. It tells how, along with their teen age son and a family friend, they contended with storms, mud, alkali dust, and mosquitoes. The work contains an able introduction by Professor Bolton, an im-

pressive 25-page bibliography, a rather poor index, about a dozen detailed maps of the trails and, adding much to the interest of the book, a profusion of pen and ink drawings by the author. Numerous quotations from original sources increase the realism of the work. Not only have the Padens retraced the trail, but they have also located nearly every important landmark along the hundreds of miles travelled. The book is both unique and authentic, yet the very mass of material is staggering; a smaller volume, with fewer details, would have appealed to more readers.

The geographer will find here a singular contribution to our knowledge of the trails. The historian may gain a clearer insight into covered-wagon life—a distinctive characteristic of our national growth from the crossing of the Missouri until the lines of prairie schooners faded away behind the smoke of the locomotive. After accompanying the Padens in their attempt to locate a river ford or the site of an old trading post, such as that of Fort Hall, the local historian will find encouragement to carry on his own sometimes difficult research.

The teacher of American history will glean from this one book a wealth of background material—an accurate knowledge of the trails and its colorful life. Fortunate will be the school whose library contains this volume; its mass of illustrative incidents and anecdotal material should offer a wholesome stimulation to the more receptive student mind.

The prairie schooner and the dangerous Platte River crossings are gone forever. Few will have the time, money, or patience to follow the old trails as have the Padens. Yet as long as this book is available readers can vicariously experience the sorrows, dangers, hardships, and thrills of the prairie-schooner route. Again one can ride or plod the weary miles, alternately fearing, cursing, and exulting, with death always at his right hand and the lure of gold in California, a farm in Oregon, or a refuge by the Great Salt Lake ever leading him onward.

The Wake of the Prairie Schooner is not designed for mass circulation; rather it is written for that part of the reading public who have a special interest in the events so clearly described. The first account of its kind, it fills a considerable gap in the reconstruction of the paths of our westward expansion. It is to be hoped that the Paden family will follow other trails to locate additional landmarks, and that Mrs. Paden will write as entertainingly of their future travels.

U. S. Coast Guard

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

AMERICA IN TRANSITION. By John A. Kinneman and Richard G. Browne. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1942. Pp. xv, 581. \$3.50.

The authors have embodied more than a decade of teaching experience at the Illinois State Normal University in this excellent textbook for courses in contemporary civilization. Their fundamental thesis, "that urbanization and social change are two of the conspicuous derivatives that have accompanied mechanical development," gives a unity and an integration of content drawn from several social sciences which is often aspired to and not so often achieved.

Rejecting "the summation of problems, accompanied by naive solutions with which we expect students to become familiar," the authors offer an interpretation of the contemporary scene in terms of trends, contrasts, the raising of problems, and the recommendation of standards and good practices. Historical material, particularly that which relates to changes since 1880, is used for illustrative purposes. Attention is centered upon those changes which seem to the authors of long-range importance; a conscious effort has been made to refrain "from overemphasizing the changes which have occurred since December 7, 1941."

The book consists of forty-six chapters organized into seven parts dealing with social change, rural and urban life, the economic, world, national scenes, and a conclusion, "Facing the Future," on the party system, students and reform, and records and research. The authors try to leave the student under no illusion that he is getting more than an introduction to the social sciences—"a kind of intellectual appetizer that will encourage further study." Consequently some specialists will see serious omissions in the chapters which deal with their fields of specialization, a criticism which is sometimes a recommendation to the teacher of college freshmen. In the reviewer's opinion the treatment of the price system is strong precisely because it does not attempt to do much, and does clearly what it sets out to do. The chapter on "Challenges to Democracy" will provoke students to think about the more basic concepts involved. The placing of the chapter on education in the first part is to be commended.

As in all such works some minor flaws appear. Some discussion of the relative merits of proposed methods of electing the President might have been included with the judgment passed upon the existing method (p. 32); it would seem desirable and easily possible to have explained how

proportional representation works (pp. 32 and 263); and, if George Washington is to be quoted on foreign policy, it would seem better to quote him fully enough to include, in his own words, the emphasis upon "our detached and distant situation" and his recommendations of adequate military means and "temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies" (p. 527). The historian might question the superiority of the Pennsylvania to the Virginia delegation at the Constitutional Convention and might prefer to see more stress placed upon the agreements of the members and upon the fear which some of them had of democracy (pp. 63 and 393-96). Although the general plan of the book seems to have made a greater use of materials from cultural anthropology somewhat out of place, the omission will be regretted by some teachers.

One of the strongest features of *America in Transition* is the judicious combination of the general and the specific to give an adequate factual basis for the former and meaning to the latter. The style avoids at once an excessive use of technical terms and a misguided attempt to be "popular." There are a number of well-chosen pictures, some graphs, and a large number of tables of highly useful statistical data. The "Suggested Activities" are sufficiently specific to be done by freshmen and, most commendably, stress the use of data to be found in the community.

America in Transition is a very good guide for freshman college students who want to get a clear, readable, and up-to-date description of major institutions and trends in our society. It is also recommended to the high-school teacher of "American Problems" or "Problems of Democracy" for use by able students in supplementary reading.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

University of Chicago

THE BRITISH TRAVELLER IN AMERICA, 1836-1860.

By Max Berger. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, No. 502. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 239. \$3.00.

Reports by foreign travellers tell us much about ourselves, and sometimes even more about the traveler's homeland. With minor exceptions, conservative opinion was strengthened by contact with the American scene, whereas liberal thought, in the main, found in the new world a firmer foundation for its beliefs. Whatever the motive of the writer or reader of travels, pub-

lishers found that a vast and profitable market existed for this literature. The stay-at-home could learn from these works a great deal about American government, slavery, religion, and customs. At a time when Englishmen were debating the need for increased public support of education, travellers were particularly impressed by the superior American facilities. But a great number of English readers had an immediate interest in travel books; an inexpensive guide for emigrants sold over a quarter-million copies.

Dr. Berger's book is useful not only for the student of American civilization. With its comprehensive bibliography it is another item in the growing bibliography of Anglo-American studies.

MICHAEL KRAUS

College of the City of New York

MODERN WORLD GEOGRAPHY. By Earl C. Case and Daniel R. Bergsmark. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1943. Rev. ed. Pp. x, 746. \$2.20.

This revision of Case and Bergsmark's high school geography is but little changed from the earlier edition except for about fifty tables and graphs that have been brought up to date.

Part one is an inadequate, 69-page introduction to some of the important basic principles and facts of the geographic science, under the heading "The Natural Environment and Man." Teachers will find a study of the climate stations and the two maps of human energy worth much study and thought. In addition, a considerable amount of valuable information is to be found in the brief discussion of climate.

Part two is a 273-page economic geography of the United States, with a 42-page discussion of Canada. The authors have brought into the text many valuable principles of economic geography, though more emphasis might have been placed on them. The treatment is by regions or industries, as for instance: Cotton and the Cotton Belt, Corn and the Corn Belt, Forests and Industries, Iron and Steel. On the whole a good treatment of the United States and Canada in their economic aspects.

The rest of the book is a similar treatment of selected world areas: Europe, China, Japan, India, Mexico and the Caribbean Lands, the Humid Tropics, (oils, cacao, and coffee) and middle-latitude South America.

Chiefly this is an economic geography by regions, but it is not consistent in approach. In places it is a world-wide treatment of a crop

such as in "Oils, Cacao, and Coffee," or it is a regional geography, as in the chapter on "Chile and Argentina."

As a reviewer one is never truly objective. In this case it is a question of what the high school course in geography should offer. To my way of thinking Case and Bergsmark follow a pattern that is too much like that of the lower grades—on a higher level with principles in greater number, to be sure—but nonetheless it is a study that children have already had. My notion is that the high school should teach facts and principles that can be used no matter what changes take place. Young peoples need to learn of climates and landforms, and the effect these have on man. They need to understand the environment. In part to get more from travel, but more important is the need for a working knowledge of the geographic science as a tool for intelligent thinking, voting, planning, and even law making. These pupils need to have a method of study to find out: What is being done? Why is it being done? and, most important, What should be done?

I come to the notion that high school geography ought to give a sound understanding of the physical basis of geography, adequately tied in with actual cases. On this foundation there might well be a course in economic geography, stressing principles, or a course in regional geography. In every case I should stress the notion of "why things are so," and "what is the probable future?" Geography to retain its present strength must be more than an accounting of past and present conditions. It must show the way toward the best use of the world and its resources. Thus geography becomes the tool of the planners and lawmakers who are still in our high schools.

To get the most out of this book the teacher must be a specialist, trained in the geographic discipline, in order to know what parts to emphasize and in order to go beyond the book to explain causes of climatic conditions, soils and landscapes, which are not adequately presented. The book is unusually well illustrated with pictures and graphs which should be studied carefully by the class.

Modern World Geography, while it does not fulfill the requirements that I would set up for a high school geography, is a good text in economic and social geography.

J. GRANVILLE JENSEN

Rhode Island College of Education

EXPLORING OUR WORLD. By Charles C. Barnes and Elsie M. Beck. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1943. Pp. 403. \$1.28.

This is an interesting little book that should prove valuable as a reader to accompany classes of the middle grades on imaginary trips of exploration throughout the world. For the most part the material is interesting and correct but a number of unfortunate statements have been made. For example: speaking of maps and globes, "north is always at the top." This is obviously a misstatement if applied to the map on page seven of the book. "The lands in the center of the earth are nearest to the sun's rays. That is why they are the hottest part of the world." Can it be that the authors believe this? They ought to take a course in geography! Is it any wonder that college students have some queer ideas? One could also question many statements dealing with geography, especially climate, but it can be assumed that they are mostly the result of over-generalization.

In traveling to see how other people live and to get a view of their land and climate the book touches on the following regions; New England and the Middle Atlantic States, the Southern States, the North Central States, the Western States, Alaska and Canada, Latin America, Europe, Africa and Australia, Asia and the Pacific Isles.

The many illustrations are good and well chosen.

J. GRANVILLE JENSEN

Rhode Island College of Education

ECONOMICS, AN INTRODUCTION TO FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS. By Augustus H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1943. Pp. xviii, 554. \$1.68.

USING THE WEALTH OF THE WORLD, A TEXT IN ECONOMICS. By Robert I. Adriance. Boston: Little Brown, 1943. Pp. xiii, 429. \$1.88.

These two high school texts may well be considered together, not because of similarities, but on account of their differences.

Smith's *Economics* is a sixth edition within ten years of a text that has established a good reputation for itself. The excuse for another edition is mainly new legislation and changed economic conditions since 1939, date of the fifth edition. This book contains about as much neo-classical theory as can be taught to high school students and is a good introduction to business and col-

lege economics. Its subtitle suggests that it is largely applied economics. The general organization of subject matter and methods of all earlier editions is preserved. It is not divided into separate parts or big units. The chapters lead the student from three introductory chapters and one on consumption through chapters on the factors of production, business organization, exchange and price, some special problems, functional distribution, and a few concluding chapters. The chief revisions are found in the chapters on International Trade, Public Finance, Transportation, and those dealing with Labor and Industry.

The chapters are exceptionally well organized, and the publishers have co-operated in making this virtue stand out. Large type is used for main topics; subtopics, laws, and definitions are in italics. Abundant use is made of numbering points. Students should find it easy to outline this text and to get its main ideas. Its style is a compact, textbook type, put in language not above the high school level. Pictures and graphs, carefully selected, show up well on the heavy, white, rather glossy paper. The type is large and easy to read. Classified pedagogical aids of nearly every kind are found in all chapters. Unfortunately, the type for these is rather small. Those teachers that favor the conventional approach to economics will welcome this new edition.

Adrianse, *Using the Wealth of the World*, is a new arrival in the large family of economics texts. The author definitely proposes to hew along new lines. His text differs from the above in content, methods, and mechanical features. The title suggests that the consumer-citizen point of view predominates. It obviously is not a book on theory, but a description of economic processes and institutions and their uses. The author has divided the book into four unequal parts: Part I, Introduction, one chapter; Part II, Problems of the Consumer-Citizen, four chapters; Part III, The Economic Process, ten chapters; Part IV, Conclusion, two chapters.

The author intended to include only economic material that is of use to high school students, most of whom will not go to college. This raises several important questions. What kind of economics should be taught in high school? Is theory not a tool of use even to high school students who do not intend to go to college? Are general business information and the consumer-citizen point of view the only things that matter? If so, the author might have enlarged on personal economics.

As to methods, the author deviates from what many used to consider sound practice. He does not stress formal definitions, which raises the question of how necessary they are to clear thinking. Neither does he organize his material conspicuously in great detail, leaving much of this to students. Main points, however, stand out clearly enough. Furthermore, he relegates the usual teaching and learning aids to the back part of the book, a sixty-page appendix. There is neither the amount nor the variety of helps found in Smith's text. How important are these aids? Can there be too many? Does their location matter? Students will like the light and interesting, descriptive and narrative style. Outwardly the book looks smaller than it is. It makes use of narrow margins, small pages (5 x 7 $\frac{3}{8}$ inches), comparatively small type, but not too small, and dull, light-weight paper. Well-chosen pictorial material shows up quite well considering the paper. Mechanical features are generally not decisive in selecting texts; still they are not entirely negligible, as check lists show.

This summarizes the main differences between the two texts and some of the issues involved in their use. They are not keen competitors. Undoubtedly there is room for both types.

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UNCLE SAM VERSUS INFLATION, The Problem and its Solution in Cartoons. By Otto H. Ehrlich. New York: Harper, 1943. Pp. xii, 159. \$2.00.

Every obstructionist Congressman should receive a copy of this book. Recent events, especially taxation and subsidy debates, point dramatically to the appalling ignorance of a vast segment of articulate Americans about the elements of inflation. Although more sordid characteristics than ignorance may be involved in the confusion surrounding Congressional attempts to "control" inflation, the immobile bulk of accumulated failure-to-understand looms as the clearest feature of the situation. Inflation, its real nature, its causes, how to prevent it, how to control it, and just how bad a little bit of it might be, are inextricably involved in the current battle on the home front.

It is, therefore, all to the good that books which simplify a highly abstract idea, such as inflation, by presenting it in a way more understandable to larger audiences, should be written, published, and widely used. Ehrlich's book should be hailed

as a significant experiment in the field of functional journalism.

But presenting the story of *Uncle Sam Versus Inflation* by the cartoon technique isn't as simple as the book seems to imply. Each of the eighty cartoons is dependent upon a text, printed in too-small type at the bottom of the page opposite the cartoon—almost like a footnote. Actually, the cartoons illustrate only in part the brief text, which uses language sufficiently involved and specialized to discourage many of the readers for whom the book is evidently intended.

There are many inspired visualizations of abstract ideas in this volume. There are a few which "miss the boat"—for this reader. The writer's and artist's task in undertaking a simplification and pictorialization of inflation and the government's programs for its control is formidable. That they have not succeeded as well as they may in future volumes is not to be deplored. They have brought much wit, penetrating study, and great abilities to the task which they have, in large measure, accomplished.

It is to be sincerely hoped that Ehrlich, and Forst, his artist collaborator, will continue to shed light on problems which deserve a more understandable treatment than words alone can give.

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PROBLEMS OF A CHANGING SOCIAL ORDER. By John M. Gillette and James M. Reinhardt. New York: American Book, 1942. Pp. xiv, 824. \$4.00.

This is a revision of an earlier text published by the same authors. It has a new title which conforms to the present emphasis on social change in the explanation of social problems. The divisions and chapter heads have been altered somewhat, but chapter content has been changed very little, except that some new material on population has been added and chapters 30 and 31 have been given complete revision.

This text gives a very complete, readable, and interesting treatment of all of the problems usually discussed in texts in social pathology or social problems such as population, the city, poverty and dependence, health, the feeble-minded and epileptics, the insane, the blind, eugenics, race, immigration, the family, child wel-

fare, social control, crime and alcoholism. It differs from other texts in that it gives attention to problems often omitted from such texts. Two chapters are devoted to man's adjustment to the natural environment, one to the nature, functions, and decline of the village, and one to the problems of farm living. It differs from many also in that it presents a brief view of the field of society and of the nature of social problems. This makes it possible to use the text for introductory courses in sociology.

The users of this text will welcome this revision and will find that the book has all of the strong points of the older text with some improvements.

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